RELIGION AND EDUCATION

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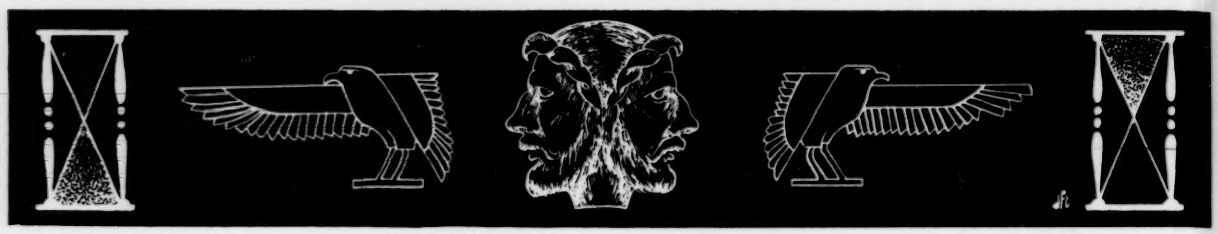
JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

JANUARY, 1955 VOLUME 137 NUMBER 4

AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS



JANUS, ancient Roman divinity, was worshipped as the god of the beginning of things, and dispenser of the fortunes of mankind. He was usually represented as having two faces—one looking back upon the past, the other facing the future. It was the custom among the Romans to exchange friendly greetings with one another and little tokens to signify their good wishes for a successful year. Following this ancient tradition, the *Journal of Education* extends to its friends and readers felicitations for health, happiness, and achievement during 1955.

The moving finger writes . . .

Photo by Marty Haroutunian

ACROSS OUR DESKS in 1955 will march a horde of papers, almost like an invasion of locusts, which will sap our energies, numb our fingers, and strain our eyes. Some of these papers will be standardized forms, the columns of which we shall fill with tiny numbers and check marks. Some of these sheets will be of our own making —tests, quizzes, and assignments to be corrected and scored. There will be ledgers, class books, attendance records, anecdotal reports and, of course, lesson plans in neatly packaged units.

IN THE MIDST of all this detail we may be tempted to forget the one thing of supreme importance: Each of us is an individual; each pupil with whom we come in contact is also an individual—and the attitude of individual toward individual is the most significant factor in all teaching.

TIME AND AGAIN we have called to our attention the constantly increasing shortage of qualified teachers. By degrees the public has been sensitized to the need for more reasonable salaries, for higher professional standards, for greater security for teachers, and the need for more modern institutions dedicated both to the training of teachers and the education of the young. Significant progress has been made; we can only hope it has not been too little . . . nor too late.

—Alvin D. Rogers

JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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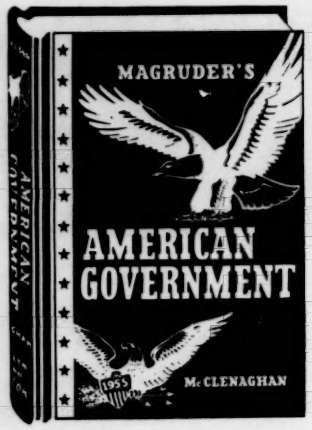
Published monthly, October through May, by Boston University, School of Education, Boston, Massachusetts. Address the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, 332 Bay State Road, Boston, Massachusetts on editorial or business matters. Printed by the Banker and Tradesman Press, 475 Main Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Subscription price, $3.00 a year; 2 years, $5.50. (In Canada, $3.50 a year; foreign, $4.00 a year.) Single copies, $ .50. Entered as Second-Class Matter, Boston, Mass., Oct. 30, 1953. Change of address should be sent promptly, giving both the old and the new address. Advertising rate card available upon request. Copyright, 1954, Trustees of Boston University. All rights reserved.



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Unity or Confusion?

By Robert Ulich

In the progress of specialization a number of scholarly disciplines have made themselves independent, which initially belonged to the "humanities" in the traditional sense of the word, especially to philosophy.

To mention first an example from this country: the Harvard philosophy department of William James, Josiah Royce, and Hugo Munsterberg was not only a creative center of pure philosophy, but also of psychology, and at the same time a place toward which educated men looked for their enlightenment about the burning spiritual and social problems of the day. Wilhelm Wundt, at the University of Leipzig, who influenced both James and Munsterberg, was, like William James, originally trained as a scientist and physician and never abandoned these interests. But in addition to his *Physiological Psychology* he wrote outstanding works in the field of theoretical philosophy, especially on logic, ethics, and metaphysics, and at the end of his life he attracted a large number of students (of whom I was one) to his course on anthropology and published his monumental eleven volumes on *Volkerpsychologie*. William Stern at the University of Hamburg and, after Hitler's rise to power, at Duke University, together with Binet and others, one of the founders of modern psychometrics, and inventor of the term I.Q., wrote not only a large number of psychological works, but was proud of his philosophical system of "critical personalism," the third volume of which contained a theory of values. As a matter of fact he was somewhat disappointed that his fame as a psychologist had overshadowed his reputation as a humanist philosopher.

Implications of Departmentalization

Within the life span of the older of us in the academic world, this universality, if we may use this somewhat presumptuous term, is gone. There is no use in lamenting it. We'd better take stock and ask ourselves what in the process of departmentalization has been gained and what has been lost.

On the credit side is the enormous expansion of experimental psychology, of theoretical and empirical sociology, and of anthropology. Psychometrics has developed to a degree of which its early pioneers, Johann Friedrich Herbart (Kant's successor at the philosophical chair of the University of Konigsberg) and Gustav Fechner (professor of philosophy at the University of Leipzig) never would have dreamed. In addition, during the past decades a great number of chairs have been founded for scholars whose talents would not have been recognized in the older setting.

But there is also loss. It lies in the gradual disappearance of minds with a capacity of still comprehending in approximate totality human problems which, if constantly divided and subdivided, cannot be treated with desirable depth, not even with scientific accuracy. For the kind of precision which looks for security by omitting pertinent, though perhaps methodically disturbing, factors is bound to defeat itself. The loss of comprehension—here lies the real calamity—is due not only to the increasing wealth of knowledge, but also to a lack of a rounded out training of our younger scholars. I am not discussing here whether the ardent pursuit of little side paths of research by students who have not yet had a view of the whole intellectual landscape is desirable or not. Sometimes it seems to me that this self-restriction is more a sign of a disappearing sense of what is important and unimportant than a mark of true scholarship. However, many a struggling little tree has finally yieided excellent fruit. Thus, instead of smiling at the seeming pendantry and narrowness of some workers in the academic orchard, let us admire their patience, and hope for the best.

The Need for Synthesis

Now, one of mankind's cultural activities which cannot be understood without a sense for synthesis is education. Formerly considered to be "pedagogy" or "the art of teaching," or, in its philosophical aspect, assumed to be a responsibility of the philosopher and perhaps also the theologian, education has now allied itself with an increasing number of disciplines: psychology, sociology, history, anthropology, physiology, statistics, medicine, and so on. Not a few representatives of the older "liberal arts" look with suspicion at the new "social sciences" and the treatment of education under their aspects. (May I confess that I am old fashioned—or perhaps modern—enough to believe that despite all labeling education is still within the domain of the humanities.) However, the schools of education both within colleges and universities as well as separate Colleges of Education, seem to grow, not only in number, but also in the variety of their offerings. None of us can still claim expertship in all of them even when they reside within the precincts of an educational department. The more one tries to understand the scope of education, the more one labors under the curse of the limitations of one's knowledge.

All this including of more and more subjects and subdepartments in our institutions for the training of teachers has two reasons. First, extremely little progress would be achieved if the teaching and research in education had no plan and organization of its own and were forced to rely on the lefthanded contributions of other departments. Second, there was the hope that a special school or department, comprising a variety of pertinent interests might procure an otherwise impossible synthesis of interrelated ideas.

But now the question arises: To what degree have the new institutions lived up to this expectation? In other words, has—though in different and limited fashion—some humanistic unity and creativeness been restored which became lost when the Wundts, the Jameses, and the Munsterbergs departed from the academic scene? Concretely speaking, do in our schools the representatives of the philosophy and history of education, or of the teaching of literature and the "social foundations" enter into a productive exchange of ideas with the educational psychologist, sociologist, the teachers of science, and, particularly, is there any desire on the part of the second group to cooperate with the first? Or do they all together offer merely a minor picture of that dissolution of the *mathesis universalis* which we observe in total academic life? Does the multiplication of academic chairs and "research projects" around education, however much it may enlighten us about single items, really help us in the creation of a broader, yet essentially united study of man's educational enterprises?

It would be presumptuous to give an answer. The experiment has too short a past, and, as a very complex human undertaking, it has its encouraging and its discouraging sides. Nevertheless, we have to raise the question, for only if we have it constantly in our minds can we save ourselves from the danger of complacently confusing quantitative expansion with qualitative achievement.

In his *Dean's Report* on the work of the Harvard Graduate School of Education during the academic year of 1952-53, Dean Francis Keppel has the following sentences:

> "Deep in their hearts members of the Faculty (of Education) may have doubts about each other's methods of searching for truth or of reaching conclusions on matters of current moment. . . . . These tensions cannot easily be dismissed as the inevitable differences between the theoretical and the practical man—on this point a sophisticated faculty has long ago recognized the role and the mutual interdependence of both. Nor are these tensions the result of differing personality types alone. Rather they reflect differing values and differing judgments of how man seeks the truth and what truth is significant, and are therefore not to be lightly cast aside. Compromise is not always, or even often, possible, and one may question whether it does not lead to poorer research and teaching."

However, there may be certain ways and policies which lead us nearer to the goal of mutual understanding than others.

First, we need more time for each other. Many of us, perhaps exactly those who could make the best contribution, are so absorbed in their own work that presumably they cannot add more to their already existing obligations. But, perhaps, they accentuate wrongly. Let the more important things come first, and among these first things there may be not only good teaching and friendly contact with our students, but also stimulating contact with our colleagues. At occasions this contact may bring to the open differences hard to reconcile. However, the dialectical process is still the way toward intellectual progress.

Second, some schools of education suffer from inbreeding. The degree of onesided, often wrongly interpreted "Deweyism" in our schools and colleges of education is a bad sign of their vitality. Therefore, we should invite foreign scholars as much as possible, have teachers from other departments in our own group and vice versa, and—this seems to me most urgent—recruit our young colleagues in a more flexible way. We might attract promising scholars from related departments to direct their future research and career toward education, where there are still wide areas open to thorough investigation. It might even be more effective to provide funds for students brought up in schools of education to broaden their knowledge through further studies in other departments and foreign countries. The Fulbright Exchange program and the Ford Foundation have here already been of greatest help.

An Ordering Focus Imperative

But organization is of little avail unless it is governed by a centralizing idea. Especially education, with its numerous ramifications into all areas of individual and social life and the resulting danger of amorphousness, needs an ordering focus. It lies, from my point of view, in the endeavor to understand man in his capacity of developing moral and intellectual aspirations and of searching for the means to pursue these aspirations effectively. This definition leaves room for ever widening research while at the same time it provides direction. But it would be futile to believe that this definition of a regulating principle furnishs at the same time conformity or uniformity of content. For we have not only a different philosophy, but also a different psychology, sociology and history of education if we consider man's values a product of conditioning environmental factors and nothing else, or reflections (however dimly conceived) of an embracing and universal Order. It produces a different conceptual pattern if we consider the human mind merely a reflex mechanism or a convenient device for problem-solving which will change with every changing culture, or a continuously developing enterprise toward truth, and if, as a consequence, we doubt, or dare affirm, an emerging hierarchy in human striving, in spite of all relapses into barbarism and primitiveness. Needless to say, these differences in point of view will also produce a different curriculum; the first will tend toward "science," the second toward a *philosophia perennis* or, if this is considered too presumptuous, toward philosophic humanism in its various shades. Then also the question will emerge under which of the two aspects a nation can better persist and develop, under the first or the second. And this seems to me to be a paramount problem for schools which pretend to convey the best of the nation's tradition to the younger generation.

Since within a society that calls itself "free," a superimposed dogma cannot put a seal on man's intellectual struggle (it cannot do so within any

(Continued on page 32)

"His Hands Came Out of His Pockets"

By Willie Mae Ivey

The cries came "tumbling down" in various forms, and not the so called "walls." It was my next move to do something concrete to stop them. Believe me I was happy, for these cries sounded like music to my ears.

Parent organizations wanted workshops, as one group said, "Just like the ones you give for the classroom teachers." The stage was all set so I got busy to answer their needs.

My procedure was to find out what they wanted (flat or three dimensional——or both) at their first session. They came out with such replies as, "something you do by feeling, not flat and cold, I'd be frightened by a brush and paint only, etc."

The group previewed 4 art films that related to what they had expressed a desire to do in the form of experimentation. An exhibit was also set up of the "hand arts or in the round" so they could see end results. This exhibit consisted of easy type weaving, stitchery, hook rugs, free forms in clay, and models made from saw-dust crunch.

One hour was spent in this getting acquainted period. Next they went to the rooms set up to fit their particular interest. An art helping teacher was assigned to each group to give them guidance and help in carrying out their projects.

As one project was completed to their satisfaction, they moved to another one.

I recall one parent that stood on the edge of a group with hands rammed in his pockets as if he were afraid they'd get mixed up in the fun. I thought he wanted someone to coax him but all were too busy for that——soon I noticed he had joined in and was making what looked to me like a paper sculpture truck, but lo! it turned out to be an ambulance. Later, I learned he was a physician, and was expecting a call. None came and he had a wonderful time—in fact he was the last to quit. Not one word did he say to me as he left but a grin was there that told me everything.

Believe me, they were as eager as children to take their precious art work home. I think one of the prize statements came from a father of two. "My 6-year-old forced me to come here tonight after I had insisted my feet hurt. Her curt reply was, 'Daddy, you use your hands not your feet to do art.'"

Need I say more?

Parents and teachers find that creative craft work is both stimulating and constructive.

Europe For You

By Mary Louise Mendiones

Even on a teacher's salary you can go to Europe. In spite of all you may have read, it is still possible to travel there much more cheaply than in the United States. If you will practice a few of the economies of middle class Europeans you can stretch your budget without any hardship to yourself. You will need the price of your round trip passage (approximately $360 if you sail to France tourist class), a hundred dollars more or less for gifts and purchases, another hundred dollars for an emergency fund, and five or six dollars for each day you plan to spend abroad. Thus a thousand dollars will amply cover the cost of a summer, fifteen hundred an entire six months. Here's how you can do it.

Make your greatest saving by traveling on your own. The lowest all-expense tours run ten dollars a day or more, but you can cover the same ground for half this figure if you will read your own guide book, buy your own railroad tickets, find your own hotel rooms, and discover your favorite restaurants. Furthermore, you have the freedom to linger in the places that appeal to you and the sense of adventure that the conducted tour takes away. I like to remember my bus trip over the mountains in northern England. I was obviously the only American passenger from Windermere to Carlisle. Somewhere along the Kirkstone Pass, the driver pulled over to the side of the road and stopped. He turned to me and said casually, "Wouldn't madam like to try the echo?" The other passengers got out with me to halloo across the gorge and make a kind of party for "madam," and nobody minded that we rolled into Merrie Carlisle of the Border Ballads some twenty minutes late.

Stay in small, middle-priced hotels where Europeans rather than American tourists go. Such places are not only considerably cheaper but likely to be more picturesque. Big hotels in Amsterdam or Rome are not much more colorful than their counter-parts in Dayton or Denver. In Venice I moved out of a glass and chrome establishment into a crumbling pink palace. At Mont St. Michel I managed to find a room facing the sands and sea, and if I leaned out my window far enough, I could look up through the buttresses of the chapel to St. Michael, his sword aloft. At Gloucester I stayed at the New Inn, new in 1440. Occasionally I hit my head on the eaves of my room, but, I reminded myself, so had the pilgrims who stayed there when they came to Edward II's tomb by the high altar in the cathedral.

The rates of these hotels run from $1.50 to $2.00 a day in France and Belgium (a double room is, of course, proportionately cheaper), $1.50 to $2.50 in Italy, and $1.50 to $2.50 in England and Holland, where an enormous breakfast is included. For these prices you can expect rooms that are clean and "safe." I offended the management in Canterbury when I asked for a key to my room. In forty-two years, they protested, nobody had ever taken anything. Except in England, you will almost always have running hot and cold water. And you will be surprised how easy it is to get over the notion that you must have a private bath. The tub down the corridor will be beautifully clean and the small extra fee—from a quarter to something under forty cents—will give you piles of towels and scurrying servants to bow you in and out.

Before you engage a room, however, check it for a comfortable bed with plenty of blankets, a comfortable chair, a table solid enough for writing, a wardrobe big enough to hang up your clothes (bring along your own clothes hangers), and adequate light, which you won't have in Italy. I decided to lick the problem by carrying about a sixty watt *lampadina* of my own and secretly fitting it into one hotel lamp after another.

Travel by rail is still the cheapest way to cover long distances quickly. Third class costs about half as much as first, and if it is not crowded is rarely uncomfortable. But it is wise to avoid weekends and holidays. Whit Monday in England, for instance, offers all the rigors of our Labor Day weekend. Rail fare in Italy and England is about two cents a mile, and in France, Belgium, and Holland, three cents or less. Although by American standards bus travel seems slow, try the buses for short hops. You'll feel a nearness to the poppies and the flax and the wheat.

If you eat where Europeans do, about two dollars a day will cover your food budget: $1.00 for dinner, 40c for breakfast, and 60c for lunch and snacks. Avoid the restaurants with "English Spoken" signs and beware of waiters who bring you menus with no prices listed. In France and Italy *prix fixe* meals are the simplest to order and provide the most for your money. Tips and cover charge are usually included in the over-all price. For slightly more or less than a dollar in pleasant, clean surroundings, you will generally get a soup, a whole plate of meat, a vegetable, a salad, crusty bread and cheese and excellent *vin ordinaire*. Once you've discovered a place you like, by all means return. As soon as they know

that you appreciate their food, everyone from the manager to the waitresses will want to please you, and you will find yourself making some of your best friendships of the trip. In Florence after a few evenings the proprietor of perhaps the pleasantest restaurant I found in all Europe shyly brought out his paintings. In a chain restaurant near the Gare St. Lazare a busy waiter took time to show me how he mixed the dressing for a tossed salad. It seemed fitting that the Latin Quarter waitresses who served me breakfast coffee and hot *pains chocolats* every day for a month were the last friendly faces I saw in Paris. They wished me "bon voyage" and waved me into a taxi and off to the boat train.

It is not only cheaper but often more convenient to assemble your own lunches. Bread, cheese, meat, an orange, and some such goodie as figs, almonds, or a chocolate bar make an admirable meal that you can eat on a park bench and save yourself the trouble of walking until you come to a suitable restaurant. You will, furthermore, have the experience of buying by the *etto*, the *livre*, the *kilo*, and discovering grocery stores and *charcuterie*, the French equivalent of our delicatessens. In Italy I tried out hot pigs' feet and boiled octupus and goat cheese, and in my first French *charcuterie I* bought *guiches de Lorraine* for fifteen cents and melt-in-your-mouth *friands* for a dime.

Hotels, food, and rail fare will be your chief expenses. Incidentals will remain amazingly low. Admissions to museums are never more than thirty-two cents in Italy, less in France, Belgium, and Holland. Bus and subway fare generally is ten cents or less; often you are charged, quite logically, according to the distance you ride. If you buy a book of third class tickets you can ride the Metro for a nickel. (Be sure to save your ticket; it's good for two rides.) Unlike the New York subway, both the London underground and the Paris Metro are so well marked that it is almost impossible to get lost.

Local excursions are frequently a bargain. For a little over sixty cents I went from Amsterdam to Monnikendam, Marken, Volendam, and Edam—a whole day's outing on three boats and four trams. I was free to linger at Volendam and watch the fishermen mend their nets until the children in their bright costumes came home from school.

For less than a dollar you can get good opera seats in Paris. They are only a little more expensive in Naples, Rome, Florence, and Milan. Even though you think you don't care for the music, take in the spectacle. In Italy you'll see white-wigged curtain pullers and red-sashed police. Between acts at the Paris Opera you'll want to sweep through the mirrored *salle de promenade* as if you were one of the Louises and stare at everybody.

(Continued on next page)

If you have to, you can get around entirely on English, but even bits of college French, badly pronounced, help. Europeans are remarkably understanding and patient and often anxious to give you little language lessons. Of course it is easier if someone at your hotel desk speaks enough English to give you directions. About a dozen basic phrases and a small pocket dictionary will see you through most crises in any country. However, if you are to keep your budget straight, you must learn the numerals, both to speak and to understand them quickly. I found it helpful to linger by the cash register in my breakfast cafe in Florence and check the stern signora's pronunciation of the figures she rang up.

Take as much luggage as you can carry comfortably, not as much as you can stagger under. Though there are usually plenty of porters, you may occasionally have to do a certain amount of lifting of your own baggage on and off buses and trains. You won't need new clothes. Traveling third class, you will feel quite comfortable and *comme il faut* in your older things, and the taxi-drivers will be less tempted to overcharge you. Unless you plan to spend most of your time in the big cities, you will need only one dress-up outfit. But if you wish to have a greater variety of clothes and some space for gifts, check a partially filled trunk to your first major stopping place, then forward it to the next, and so on. Or, if you travel in a circle, let the American Express Company store the trunk for less than a dollar a month while you go off lightheartedly with one suitcase and some kind of duffel bag.

You will double the fun of your trip if you make many little purchases. Obviously you will not want to come home with miniature Eiffel Towers and wooden shoes; yet back home in New Jersey or Georgia many of the tourist trinkets will look surprisingly good. A Notre Dame gargoyle broods thoughtfully over my books and I don't mind that he's cheap plaster. I rejected some $1.50 scarves at a Paris Monoprix; recently I let out a quiet yelp when I saw the same things at an Indianapolis department store, priced $5.00. Antique shops are your best bet for bargains, save that you will find yourself tempted to purchase such unportable items as needle point chairs and copper fire screens. But you can easily tuck bits of jewelry and coffee spoons and embroideries and brocades into the corners of your suitcase. In London the region around Nottinghill Gate and in Paris the area between St. Sulpice and the Seine are filled with often cluttered, inexpensive shops. Buy one or two keepsakes for yourself: they will bring back the London or Florence that is yours. I am grateful that I came away from Delft with an opal ring that for me holds all the sunlit shimmer of the canals.

And don't forget to do some gift buying for children. It will give you an excuse for collecting tiny costume dolls, Dutch doll dishes, beautiful marbles, packets of stamps, old coins, and little nickel boxes of candy tangerines and strawberries from the vending machines in the Metro. I often wished that I were a grade school teacher so that I could come home and give a Paris party.

Finally, bring back a number of the beautiful French travel posters, which you can buy for about a dollar each at the Paris Office of the Bureau of Tourism. When you get home, put them up where you can look at them often. They will cheer you on the days when classes go badly.

I keep my favorite poster—Paris in the Spring—on the wall in my kitchen. It has the apple blossoms of the Champs de Mars in the foreground with the Eiffel Tower in the distance. I'm going back next year.

Boston University

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By James A. Griffin

One purpose of education is to prepare boys and girls to be useful citizens, to enable them to live a full life, to appreciate what is about them, and to be financially independent to enjoy the fruits of progress. To obtain these temporal objectives, money is an essential requisite and it would be well for the individual to learn early in life the art of earning and handling money. Very often today the cause of broken homes can be laid to financial difficulties, expenditures overreaching income. There should be enough practice in thrift to prepare each individual to take care of himself, as well as to do his part in taking such action in regard to saving as will be for the best welfare of the country.

Many educators throughout the country have realized the need of thrift training. They are aware that the pupil who is taught to apply thrift in the saving of money can also be taught the value of thrift, when applied to time and talents.

Although both in the United States and abroad, educators rather than bankers developed school savings, yet, educators for the most part have allowed it to remain an academic thing. Bankers have worked out details and in many cases supplied the enthusiasm necessary for accomplishment. The banks which have promoted savings among school children have performed a most valuable service, and educators may well praise them for their tenacity and courageous effort in keeping alive a most worthy educational endeavor. That it has been a financial burden to banks is acknowledged, many having been compelled, because of the cost of operation, to discontinue the service.

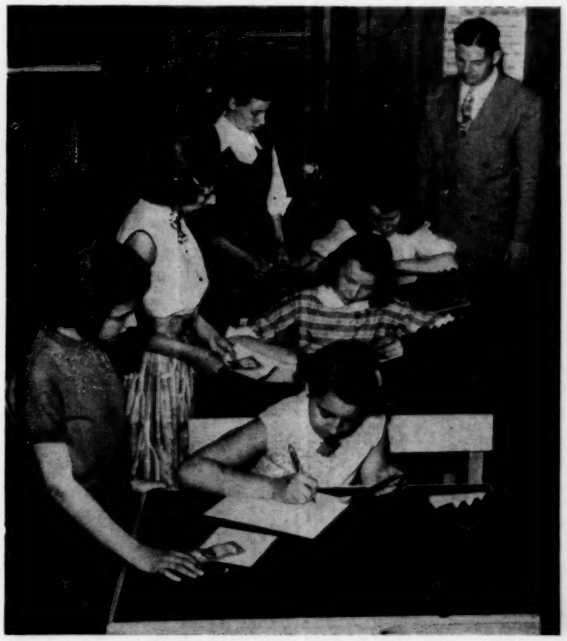
However laudable this interest on the part of the banks may be, it is my belief that the project of school savings banks should be the province of the educator. Both the State Department of Education and the State Department of Banking could agree upon a plan of school savings to be operated by the pupils themselves and at the same time to comply with the banking laws of the state.

A student operated bank is important for two reasons——it gives some of the students practical training in the operation of a bank and at the same time eliminates one of the principal reasons for school bank failures, extra work for the already overburdened teacher.

When the school savings plan was put into effect in 1947 at the John K. Tarbox School in Lawrence, Massachusetts it was simplified so that the pupils could operate it. The bank was organized by the principal who is the only one to supervise its operation. The teachers do not enter into any phase of the banking program. As a matter of fact it is against the law for them to deposit in the school bank.

The Tarbox School, with an enrollment of 371, has thirteen pupils operating its bank, eight tellers and five bookkeepers. The routine is as follows:

1. Student may open account with 5¢ or more.
2. Student signs signature card which is forwarded to Savings Bank.
3. Student teller makes out a prenumbered passbook and ledger card. Passbook is retained by depositor.
4. Deposit is recorded on tellers' deposit sheet, ledger card and student passbook.



With only token supervision, these pupils handle the entire banking procedure.

5. Tellers total day's deposits which must equal total cash received.
6. Verification of tellers' cash is done by student checker.
7. Summary sheet is prepared from the several tellers' deposit sheets. Total must agree with total cash deposited.
8. Another student prepares and wraps coins for deposit in Savings Bank.
9. Typists use ledger cards to prepare list of deposits over $1.00 to be transferred to Savings Bank Book.
10. Student is driven to Savings Bank with the summary sheet, transfer sheet, Savings Bank Book, and the cash deposit.

(Continued on page 32)

Study Hall Need not be Dull

By Dora Housley White

Our guidance director once told me, "You are the only person I ever knew who made discipline a career." Be that as it may, I do keep a study hall seven straight periods a day and I like it. I find it more exciting than English classes or library work, the fields in which I majored. The study hall supervisor has a much better chance to really know the student because she has all the students under her care at some time each day of each year and can watch the timid Freshman gradually grow into a full fledged Senior.

With the increasing school population in our high school, study halls are over-crowded, averaging one hundred fifty per hour, with a maximum of one hundred eighty, some of whom sit on the radiators. It is nothing unusual to find some Freshman boy sitting on the floor, Indian fashion, in the corner of the library, absorbed in a book. Yet there is no confusion nor disorder. "How do you do it?" my friends and co-workers ask.

Self-Discipline is the Keynote

What seems like a gigantic task really isn't, for the pupils have learned the art of self-discipline. It takes training, of course, but once the pattern of conduct is taught, the upper classmen set the pace and the younger students accept the precedent already established. "As the twig is bent, so the tree is inclined."

I begin to teach them as Junior High pupils to have a sense of pride in good behavior. I firmly believe that behavior can be taught. I teach it all the time and I am just as proud of my handiwork as the classroom teacher who turns out the perfectly planned lesson—and just as chagrined at my failures. Certain principles I drill upon day after day: that being responsible for one's own behavior is a sign of growing up; that paper wads and pea shooters are juvenile (I have not seen a paper wad nor a spit ball for five or six years.); that it pays to behave; that I don't like to watch people and I don't like people that I have to watch.

Because the students are more or less self-disciplined I have found time to sponsor a class, a club, coach a play, co-ordinate an all-school program presented to the community, serve on various committees, manage the stage crew, help with assemblies, dances, parties, and programs, and serve as president of our Community Teachers Association.

Large Groups must be Organized

When the enrollment in study hall passes the one hundred mark, there must be more or less regimentation. For instance, we have one way traffic, up the north stairs, down the south, go out of study hall to the right, come in to the left, use every other aisle. It is the same reasoning as that used by those who formulated our traffic laws on the highways. You save time and avoid accidents. We can get out of study hall in a minute and a half—without pushing or shoving. During fire drills when we leave books, one hundred and fifty can get out in a minute.

When the lunch bell rings, Seniors quietly leave, then others follow by rows without being told or directed, spacing about a half minute between rows. Rows take turns going first for a week at a time so that no one will be last in line all of the time. If some one violates his privileges, he has to wait until the last in line for several days, depending upon the extent of his error. If he offends the second time, the penalty is increased accordingly. The same applies to conduct at the tables in the cafeteria. A student is expected to be orderly and reasonably neat at the table. We have a minimum amount of loud talk, spilled milk or childish pranks in the lunch room. When we have an epidemic of loosened lids on salt shakers and blowing straws across the room, the lunch period is shortened. That usually takes care of any desire to clown at the table.

Study Hall can be a Busy Place

Since the trend to supervised study in the classroom, there is very little teacher help required in study hall. There are so many other activities besides making note books and reading assignments that can be done to keep students busy and give them a sense of being useful.

We have a crew of boys who gather up the absentee slips, which hang outside the teachers' doors, and take them to the office each period. While they are doing that, two girls take the attendance, check supervision slips, and make necessary changes in the seating charts. Two girls assist the librarian, boys carry loads of books to and from classrooms. Still others help the secretaries in the office. Scarcely a day passes that some teacher doesn't send for a girl to type, play the piano for a gym class, or cut a stencil. Coach wants help to mark off the football field or put the locker room in order. We fold letters and stamp envelopes, write publicity for school affairs, make posters, hold elections, count ballots, collect insurance, pay assembly dues, prepare exhibits, hold committee meetings, fold and clip programs together, run errands, keep bulletin boards, make decorations, plan parties and picnics, take news to the daily paper, move pianos, store supplies, water flowers, tend the gold fish, set the stage, and help speakers carry in their paraphernalia. (One boy almost balked when

Jack Ramon came with his live snakes!) Another group is organized with a foreman and straw bosses to pick up the paper on the campus about twice a week. At exactly five minutes before school is dismissed, without being told, two boys start closing windows and adjusting shades. Some one straightens up the desks and we are ready to go.

Good Citizenship Grows from Working at it

Study hall provides a fine opportunity to learn to work together and develop school spirit—not the emotional rah-rah type that we all have at football games but something solid and stable that comes from working together for the good of the whole.

Four years ago a boy came to us who had been problem number one for his grade teachers. His difficulties included a poor background, disgruntled attitudes, low grades and having been retained the previous year. He carried a chip on his shoulder and hoped some teacher would try to knock it off. But he wasn't afraid of manual labor and he knew how to do a lot of things. I ignored his faults and called on him for help when I needed to move a table or drive a nail. Soon he was my right hand man and we were friends. Before Christmas, the chip had fallen off of its own accord and no one, not even Joe, knew when nor where. The next year he was elected president of his class and made a good one. This year he is in line for an award which a citizen of our town offers —not to the best citizen, but to the boy who has made the most improvement in citizenship.

Perhaps the best study hall project is our stage crew. The manager is usually a Senior by virtue of his priority. He has under his guidance a crew of boys who set the stage for all occasions. Some with special interests care for lights, another the sound system, some pull curtains and the younger ones work wherever they are told while they are learning to take over for the older ones as they graduate. One of the science students became so interested in the sound system that he built a two-way radio so that he could talk from the main auditorium to the boy on the spot lights far in the balcony. He turned out to be our Best Citizen.

Another boy learned to build flats and paint scenery. All of this work is done by people from study hall and they lose no class time. They must, however, prepare their lessons and keep average grades to be eligible to be on the stage crew. While they are out of study hall they are self disciplined. It is a privilege to be allowed out on your own, hence very few slips in conduct.

Freshman Orientation

The sudy hall supervisor is the only teacher who has direct contact with all the Freshmen. It is a wonderful opportunity to get acquainted and form relationships that last throughout high school. For that reason I sponsor the Freshman class. One of the men on our staff is a splendid co-sponsor. I prefer a man. The boys need a little masculine atmosphere. Together, we have them organized into groups with an executive committee composed of representatives from each home room. They manage their candy sales and promote the interests of the Freshman class from various angles. Their own bulletin board is in study hall. There they go to read the menu for the week, the clippings on school news, anything special that they create, the latest announcements and maybe a joke or a clever cartoon.

In order to get acquainted with the parents of our Freshmen, early in the year we have Freshman night for both the Freshmen and their parents. A letter is sent from the office asking the parents to come to supper with the Freshman son or daughter. They go through the lunch line just as the students do during the day and have the same menu. This is not only a friendly gesture but it takes care of a lot of complaints that children may make about the food and the service in the cafeteria. After supper the parents go to the auditorium for conferences with teachers. The principal explains the policies of the school concerning the busses, insurance, absences, tuition for non-residents, answers questions, and tries to visit with each one personally. The Freshmen with their sponsors go to the gymnasium, which has been decorated by Freshmen from the study hall, and have a party. By the time the parents have toured the building and visited with the teachers the party is over and they can take their children home with them. Our principal thinks this has done more for good public relations than anything we have ever tried.

Contributing Factors

If any one factor contributes more than another to the success of a good study hall I think fairness is that factor. Once the students know you are fair, they don't mind so much your being stern. The cap-

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tain of the football team has to toe the mark as carefully as the lowliest Freshman. The banker's son is no better than the son of the butcher, the baker, the candlestick maker. The most frilly Senior girl gets no recognition beyond that of the shy Freshman with the buck teeth and run over shoes. The older and outstanding students are taught that they give rather than take special favors.

Next, if not first, is the cooperation of the administration. In order to carry through on a program set up on a large scale the principal must be one hundred percent on your side. Mine is. When a student becomes a disturbing factor, he is not permitted to come to study hall. I send him to the office as a last resort. The office staff is already overworked and I feel a weakness on my part if I can't cope with the situation myself. But if I do find it not worth my effort to go any further with a student, he is asked to report to the principal's office, without a scene if possible. If the principal finds him belligerent, he is asked to go home. His parents have to come for a conference before he can re-enter.

Other members of the staff are equally cooperative. When one of the teachers comes into the library, she walks as if she were treading on holy ground. Not that I require it of them, but it certainly makes a favorable impression on students. It amuses me some times when our dignified gray haired superintendent comes quietly in and says in a most modulated tone, "Please, may I speak to the boy in the blue shirt?" His respect for law and order is worth a dozen sermonettes.

Only a Few Rules are Necessary

The fewer rules you have, the fewer you have to enforce and the fewer there are to break. You can not sell the idea of self discipline if you set up a long code of iron-clad rules. A few are necessary, however, to maintain an organized body. I expect everyone to be seated when the tardy bell rings—not getting a drink nor dashing down the aisle. Any exception must have an explanation and it must be good. In order to be sure there is plenty of time, a few years ago I asked for an extra minute between classes. Whispering and leaving the room are discouraged. It is no crime. However, general conversation is forbidden. In groups of twenty-five or thirty I would not recommend such strong measures. If one hundred and fifty were permitted to get a drink, leave the room and talk at will, chaos would prevail.

If a student needs to be reprimanded it is done as inconspiciously as possible so that he will suffer no embarrassment. Usually a shake of the head, a pointed finger, gentle wink, or a few whispered words is sufficient. When that fails to work after repeated trials then the student has a conference with me. After that, it is up to him whether he is chastised before the other students or not. My father always said that you had to make the plaster to fit the sore.

If I leave the room to answer the telephone or confer at the office, I expect to find the same order when I return as when I left. Most students never miss me when I am out. Salesmen or chance visitors who happen in when I am out, often remark about the good order or seem surprised when they find that everything is going well without me. Some times I am not flattered and wonder if I have carried the idea of self-discipline too far.

Self-Discipline is not Self-Expression

Please do not confuse this theory of self-discipline with the no-discipline theory of some advocates of progressive education. That term of progressive education always confuses me and I use it advisedly. Hasn't education always been progressive? Self-discipline is self-control rather than self-expression and I have no time for this follow-the-lines-of-least-resistance-notion for either parents or teachers. No teacher beyond the first three months of experience is going to ask me why. I am a stern old-fashioned disciplinarian. I use the velvet glove only as long as it works.

Behavior training should transfer to other walks

(Continued on page 32)

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The American Teachers College

By Karl W. Bigelow

The American teachers college traces its history back to humble beginnings. It has come a long way since Samuel R. Hall opened our first normal school in Concord, Vermont, in 1823. And it is still in process of evolution—fairly rapid evolution, too. We cannot understand it as it is or as it may become without considering the road that it has already travelled.

Before Hall began his training classes, teachers in the United States had been a varied lot. Some held degrees from the existing colleges of liberal arts; some had had no more formal schooling than that provided by the common schools; and the majority fell somewhere between these two extremes. But one thing characterized them all: none had had any professional preparation for their work as teachers.

Early in the 19th century this lack began to attract attention. The expansion, at that time, of provision for free public education for American boys and girls increased the demand for teachers and suggested to certain public-spirited men a need for institutions where such teachers could be trained. With the resulting agitation the names of James G. Carter, Horace Mann, Thomas H. Gallaudet and Henry Barnard are notably associated. A most significant consequence was the authorization in 1837 of the first state-supported normal school, which was to be opened two years later in Lexington, Mass.

This started a genuine movement, in which Connecticut, through its establishment of the state normal school at New Britain in 1849, early participated. By the close of the Civil War fifteen such institutions existed in eleven different states. They were eventually to spread throughout the nation. And not only were they to be created by the states and, later, certain municipalities, but private persons were also to set them up in considerable numbers.

Yet though these normal schools increased rapidly in quantity thus demonstrating that they were meeting an important need, their quality, by our standards, remained pitifully low. Admission was typically by examination in elementary school subjects at sixteen or seventeen years of age, although older and often experienced persons also were welcome. The length of their course of study, originally but a single year, rose, but without their gaining collegiate status.

Criticisms of the Normal School

From the beginning, the normal schools, and what they stood for, had their critics. Moreover they criticized one another, for a conflict of views as to the proper procedures for the preparation of teachers soon developed. We may identify four positions that had their vigorous advocates:

1. The most conservative group held that a regular secondary education, with as much regular college work as possible thereafter, was a sufficient foundation for teaching. Methods courses and practice teaching, hence the normal schools themselves, were a waste of time.

2. Then came those who were willing to go a little further. They believed that while the normals should briefly review the elementary subjects and provide a few "helpful hints for teachers," their main effort should be to offer as much secondary instruction as possible.

3. A third group embraced the idea that the normal schools had an exclusively vocational function. The job, as they saw it, was to review the elementary subjects thoroughly and provide an extensive treatment of the theoretical principles of education—that is, of instruction in teaching methods.

4. Finally came a group that would move instruction in the art of teaching up to chief place, and include only "professionalized" subject matter, that which was essential to a demonstration of how to teach.

It is not difficult to understand these contesting positions since, of course, they have come down to us today in modified form. Some representatives of the teachers colleges right now tend to suspect their liberal arts brethren of believing that all professional education is so much foolishness. And the latter sometimes seem convinced that the teachers colleges offer nothing but methods courses. The ideological battle continues, often with scant attention to the facts.

A second period, which continued until about 1910, may be thought of as the high era of the normal schools. By the end of that era the number of such institutions had increased from fifteen to 264, nearly three-fifths of which were state-supported. During this period there were other important developments. Increasing numbers of high-school graduates facilitated the efforts of the normal schools to raise their standards for admission and for graduation. The high school diploma became more and more required of normal-school entrants. A two-year preparatory program came to be looked upon as standard, and three-year courses began to be introduced. The development of departments of pedagogy in the universities (notably the state universities) created a source for better-trained normal-school instructors. The spread of state certification laws made it more and more difficult for anyone to become a teacher who had not had normal-school training.

Yet with all these advances the state normals remained a long distance from the achievement of collegiate status. By and large they were small in size, and poor in staff and facilities. As late as 1890

their faculties averaged eleven in number, and these persons could not compare with college teachers in length or character of education. Their salaries were low, being in proportion to the low appropriations provided by the state legislatures. Finally the normal schools were frequently badly located, the decision as to where they should be established having been determined in part by political considerations.

It can scarcely be surprising that these little normals should have been viewed with amusement, if not contempt, by the colleges of liberal arts. These colleges had themselves shown some interest in the preparation of elementary-school teachers in the first half of the nineteenth century, though often only or chiefly in the preparatory departments with which many of them were then equipped. But as these subcollegiate appendages were sloughed off, and as the normal schools established their standing, the colleges ceased to think of producing teachers for the grades as any of their business.

Of course, they continued to be, as they had always been, the chief source of high-school teachers. In this regard the normals offered them no competition. A division of labor was established. Nevertheless, the colleges of liberal arts began, eventually, to introduce departments of education, which moved them a little bit in the normal-school direction. But this was done, typically, not out of conviction but in response to state certification requirements which now began to invade the secondary-school field. This stirred a good deal of resentment, the liberal arts group having been traditionally inclined, as we have seen, to have little or no use for "methods courses."

"Normals" Become Colleges

But worse lay ahead. The normal schools were about to assume the title of colleges themselves, with consequences that could scarcely have been fully anticipated by anybody. The break came soon after the turn of the century when the Michigan State Normal School at Ypsilanti became the Michigan State College with a four-year post-secondary school curriculum and the right to grant the Bachelor's degree, the latter being given for the first time in 1905. Thus was initiated a transformation process that operated with astonishing rapidity and thoroughness. In the less than fifty ensuing years the normal schools have been almost completely replaced by the teachers colleges and these, themselves, have often continued to evolve in quite remarkable ways.

By 1952 the number of four-year, degree-granting colleges, primarily teacher-preparatory in nature, had, according to the U. S. Office of Education, reached one hundred and forty-four. These institutions constitute the body of teachers colleges, but the fact is that it has already become difficult to know just what a teachers college is.

The creation of teachers colleges was first proposed and promoted in the sole interest of improving the preparation of elementary school teachers. However, once their degree-granting status was established they inevitably found themselves subject to temptation and pressure to enter the secondary-school field. This many proceeded to do.

Nor did they always stop there. For there were other temptations and other pressures. If the needs of would-be secondary-school as well as would-be elementary-school teachers were to be met, why not those of other categories of high school graduates? The development of four-year programs, especially when the preparation of secondary school teachers was also undertaken, had resulted in the expansion of offerings in the so-called subject-matter fields — English, history, and the natural sciences, for example. Faculty members specializing in those subjects had been added. These men and women were prepared to man a program for students who were not interested in becoming teachers. In states where colleges of liberal arts were relatively few and population was expanding rapidly, a good case could be made for taking such a step. It could be argued that this was essential to the adequate provision of educational opportunity for young people of post-high school age.

Such arguments seemed impressive to many legislatures, though not to those in the Northeast, which was the stronghold of the privately controlled colleges. So the teachers colleges began to take on the function of liberal education, just as the colleges of liberal arts had taken on that of teacher education. This has resulted in making the task of institutional classification increasingly difficult. There are some so-called colleges of liberal arts today producing more teachers in proportion to the size of their graduating classes, than some so-called teachers colleges.

What has been going on, so far as the character of institutions is concerned, is reflected in what has been happening to the names of institutions. Of all the accredited colleges and universities in the United States in 1951, 229, or almost exactly one-quarter, had at one time or another had titles in which the word "normal" appeared. Of only five was that still true. Of the remainder only one-half still signified their ancestry by calling themselves "teachers colleges" or "colleges of education." The remainder had become "state colleges" or just plain "colleges" or "universities."

Teacher Education Associations Emerge

In 1858 the American Normal School Association was formed. It flourished for many years. In 1917, however, the presidents of the emerging teachers colleges organized the American Association of Teachers Colleges, which ten years later assumed the function of accreditation, that is of declaring which institutions offering four-year programs for the preparation of teachers met minimum standards for this purpose.

Two other associations later emerged. One was made up of the deans of university schools and colleges of education. These university divisions had become extremely influential in the teacher-education world. Not only did they provide professional instruction for university undergraduates desirous of entering teaching, but they became centers of pedagogical research and of graduate training for prospective college teachers of education. It was to the holders of

(Continued on page 18)

The Tape Recorder

By Herbert J. Phillips

The tape recorder for school use has been on the market a relatively short time. It has proved to be so helpful as an aid to teaching that it has gained widespread use in a matter of a very few years. As a music teacher and band director in a Class C school, I have had the use of a tape recorder for about six years and am convinced that it is an aid that no music department should be without.

When I am directing my own band I find that one of the greatest dangers which I must guard against is imagining results which are not actually achieved. This occurs because as I look at the printed music I see an eight measure phrase, or I see a beautiful chord with all the tones sounding in proper balance. Perhaps all the tones of the chord are not even being played but the director may think he hears them because his mind may instinctively translate the printed notation into sounds in his mind. This might be referred to as a conditioned response which may be developed over a long period of time. One of the quickest ways for a director to be brought down to earth is to tape the performance, lay the printed music aside, and just listen as it is played back. He will hear what the general public hears and not what he things he hears while reading a score.

The tape recorder can be a great time saver and convenience. Have you ever tried to produce a program making use of other departments in the school? Last spring we had as one of the features a style show done by the Home-Making department to the music of "Waves of the Danube" played by the band. Now the band rehearses in the morning, Home-making class meets in the afternoon. How do we get the two together? Simple . . . tape the music in band hour and present it "canned" to the Home-making teacher to use when and as she needs. In working out the detailed action with the girls she may stop, repeat, go ahead, or rewind and do over as many times as she likes without consuming valuable practice time which the band no doubt needs on the overture or that band specialty number.

As I write we are about to start the football marching season. Can we use the tape recorder to advantage? Why not? How about having a good drummer, or even the whole section, tape the drum cadence used in marching, and when the new members have difficulty, give them extra help outside of band hour with the actual drum cadence which they will have on the field.

How often do we tell our groups that they must play softly here and loudly there and then let them get by with very little happening dynamically? Have you ever taped a simple march and then on the play back asked the students to raise their hands when they actually hear a dynamic change? Try it sometime. You may be amazed at how quickly the point gets across.

I like to use our recorder at concerts. I have a non-playing student sit with the recorder in an inconspicuous place and tape all of some numbers and only sections of others. After the concert or the next day we can hear what we did and maybe smile at some of the things which may not have struck us as amusing at the time. I well remember our last concert last year when a snare drum was tipped off the back row of our risers while the director was commenting on the various sections of the band. The resultant clatter came out beautifully on the recording, and incidentally, also the good humored laughter of the audience.

Another important and successful use which can be made of the recorder is in preparing grade students in your school system to enjoy a concert which you are about to present. Much music which is to be used on a concert is not available on records. Just tape sections of the program and take it around to the various grade rooms, with the permission of the grade teacher, of course. She will be happy to have you point out to the students what to listen for as the band is playing. Incidentally, this makes fine advertising for your concert, especially if you have as part of the program something on the order of the story of "The Three Bears," with narrator and band.

The tape recorder encourages attentiveness and self-criticism.

Our tape recorder is not one of the expensive makes, but in my opinion, it gives us results which are indeed satisfactory and very worth while. True, efficient use of this "instrument for the instrumentalist" takes time for proper planning and play back, but it also provides better teaching and therefore saves time in the long run.

The Challenge of Citizen Participation

By Robert F. Savitt

During the years following World War II, citizens have been looking more closely at institutions that they previously took for granted. The public schools have been in the spotlight due to increased enrollments, a crying need for new school construction, rising school budgets, a nationwide wave of teacher strikes, and a shortage of teachers to man our classrooms. Citizens began wondering what they could do to improve education, and there was a resurgence of the feeling that all citizens have a primary responsibility toward our schools.

One of the results of renewed citizen interest in the schools has been the formation of citizen committees which act as advisors to boards of education. There is no way to tell how many of these groups have been formed, but more than 2400 were in contact with the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools in May, 1954, and perhaps four times that number were in operation throughout the United States. These lay advisory committees provide one way of bringing the general public into constructive teamwork with the board of education, superintendent, and teachers in the operation of the schools. How best to work with these citizen committees and how to channelize them in the best interests of education is a challenge that many school administrators and school teachers face.

Citizen Participation Has Historical Justification

Citizen participation in the public schools is not a new concept in this country. In the early days of settlement, the laymen built their schools with their own hands and took an active part in managing the schools. The pioneers also were actively involved in constructing their own schools and in selecting their teachers. As communities developed in size, responsibility was delegated to a school board of citizens who were ultimately responsible for education.

However, as our economy and our social order became more complicated, boards of education, as elected representatives, have been moved farther and farther away from the people they represent. In some states, the state legislatures have restricted local boards of education to being merely administrative agencies for carrying out state school policy, hence removing control of the schools one great step farther from the local citizen.

In recent years, an encouraging development has been the tremendous growth of citizen interest in matters of education, and the organization of that interest to make action effective. The Parent-Teacher Association movement was one attempt to bring the schools closer to the people and succeeded in interesting many laymen in school matters. Current educational trends emphasizing parent-teacher conferences have made parents more familiar with school problems. However, the emergence of citizens educational advisory committees has been the most dramatic and significant attempt to provide a two-way channel for people to express their ideas on school matters and for the schools to interpret their program to the citizens.

The place and value of citizen educational advisory committees is controversial with some school administrators and school board members, fearing that their powers and prerogatives will be usurped. On the other hand, those who have worked with citizen groups point out the great opportunities citizen committee activities provide for creating understanding between laymen and school people.

Accomplishments of Citizen Committees

There is considerable evidence to indicate the contributions that citizen advisory committees have made to education. The New Jersey Education Association has published a study of citizen committee activities and lists 36 tangible benefits from citizen participation reported by superintendents in 97 districts. These benefits included help in formulating building programs, successful endorsement of bond issues, publication of more school news, curriculum development, better salary schedules, better playgrounds, revised health programs, improved report cards, desirable school district consolidation, money for future needs, increased use of community leaders as "resource" people for classroom instruction, and the establishment of adult education programs.

The contributions of citizen committees are very worthwhile according to the vast majority of superintendents participating in a recent nationwide survey made by the author. 93% of the superintendents participating reported that citizen committees in their communities had achieved great or moderate success in disseminating information which resulted in a better two-way communication between laymen and the schools. 92% of the superintendents participating reported that citizen committees had great or moderate success in getting action on recommendations which resulted in better education for the children.

Many of the 42,500 letters received at the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools during the past three years describe accomplishments of citizen committees. Commenting on these letters, one of the Commission officials said, ". . . no clearcut line can be drawn to distinguish what lay groups can and cannot do. A good citizens committee working cooperatively with school authorities, representative of the

community, and proceeding on the basis of fact can accomplish just about anything."

'Know How' of Committee Operation Important

If a citizens committee is to be most effective, it should be representative of the whole community ——geographically, religiously, economically, politically, and socially. Various methods can be used. Schoolhouse P. T. A.'s can select their own representatives, or service and fraternal groups can elect representatives. Every effort should be made to have citizen advisory committee members elected rather than selected, with the school board not designating who shall serve.

Citizen committees should make every attempt to work cooperatively with school authorities, but independence of thought and action should be preserved. Teachers, administrators, and school board members should serve as resource people when needed but without vote in the final decision. If the citizen committee has been self-initiated, it should inform the school board of its existence and attempt to work with the board rather than against it.

The citizen committee should be concerned with facts and make certain its action is based on an objective evaluation of the problems. Rumors, half truths, and bias have no place in the deliberations of the citizens committee. Efforts to improve the education of the pupils should be based on facts, not fancy.

The citizen educational advisory committee is usually formed for a specific purpose, either at the suggestion of the school board or growing out of a felt need on the part of the citizens. Once it has studied a problem and presented recommendations to the school board, citizen committee members must realize that the final decision rests with their elected school board representatives.

Citizen committees, of course, are not always successful, and all of them are at some time confronted with obstacles that hinder their operation. One of the most serious problems faced by citizen committees is getting a representative committee and arousing public interest. Securing competent leaders and officers has been a problem for some citizen groups, while many citizen committee chairmen report difficulty in providing for continued committee activity once the primary objective has been reached. Cooperative relations with other groups in the community that are interested in education must be constantly strived for by citizen committees. Serious problems sometimes are faced by committees when they need technical information not readily available or when the committee is split regarding recommendations that will be supported.

Valuable Methods

A study of the activities of many citizen committees throughout the country as well as an analysis of the files and resources of the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools reveals that in spite of certain differing local circumstances, a pattern emerges which indicates that certain methods are frequently used with success by citizen committees.

In initiating committees, the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools and the local superintendents have been helpful sources providing information for getting the committee started. In spite of the many communication inventions, word of mouth publicity still seems to be the best way to arouse public interest for setting up a citizen committee.

A citizen committee can best be organized on a representative basis by having a cross section of key leaders serve with representatives from various organizations. One of the best ways citizen committees have found to get good leadership is to have a nominating committee seek out competent officers. Many committees have been successful in sustaining interest either by providing for an influx of new

(Continued on page 30)

Citizens in Ipswich, Mass. share in educational planning.

(Continued from page 14)

their Master's and Doctor's degrees that both the teachers colleges and colleges of liberal arts increasingly looked for such teaching. The deans' association was neither very active nor very powerful. The same could be said of the second body consisting of the heads of teacher-education institutions in large cities.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in 1948 the three organizations merged to create a new body, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The new name was carefully chosen. "Colleges for Teacher Education" was a new term, designed to be broad enough to provide a shelter for any institution of collegiate grade concerned with the preparation of teachers. Its selection reflected the emergent idea that it would be a good thing if, eventually, all institutions of higher education engaged in the business of teacher education might join together on common ground. Specifically this manifested a readiness to welcome into the new association colleges of liberal arts that could meet minimum standards of excellence.

The liberal arts group responded in a mixed fashion. Some (and the number has been increasing year by year) took advantage of the new opportunity and joined the AACTE. But others reacted negatively. To some of these it looked as though the teachers colleges were getting "too big for their britches" and were trying to take their older and more respectable sister-institutions into camp.

Variation in Size and Quality

The old normal schools could be brushed aside as patently inferior and wholly non-competitive, but the modern teachers college *is* competitive. It not only offers a degree but it frequently declares that it, too, can provide a liberal education. In a period when the financial problems of privately-supported colleges are becoming increasingly acute, the expansion of publicly-supported, low-tuition institutions that make the same appeals to prospective students can scarcely be expected to elicit cheers from the harassed. And this must be especially the case when the ideas that the liberal arts group hold about the teachers colleges tend to be based not on first-hand recent experience but on impressions absorbed indirectly in the old normal-school days.

Nor are those ideas by any means always completely wrong. No group of institutions could evolve as rapidly as the teachers colleges have done without retaining some of their own traditional attitudes and practices beyond the time and the degree when these remained rationally defensible. Similarly the up-grading of staff, plant, and facilities to a level wholly suitable to the fulfilment of new obligations could not be accomplished overnight. The teachers colleges vary, of course, in the extent to which they have as yet achieved capacity to carry out their present commitments in first-rate fashion. As a group they certainly show no signs of self-satisfaction: they are vitally concerned with self-improvement.

But however far the teachers colleges may fall short of perfection, the progress they have made in the half-century of their existence is phenomenal. Indeed there are many current facts about them that, if they were well known, would startle a great many persons. Among these persons are numerous critics who in recent months have succeeded in finding platforms from which to launch attacks that have reached considerable audiences. Let us look at some of their criticisms in relation to certain facts.

Our American teachers colleges, like our colleges of liberal arts, vary widely among themselves. Some are small and some are large. Some are poor and some are rich. Some have weak faculties and some have strong. The admissions standards of some are low; others draw their lines at a high level. Curricula range from the traditional to the progressive, and so on. This means that if we could array all the members of each of these two groups of colleges, separately, according to any one of these dimensions we would find a good deal of overlap. This means that even when the average standing of one group is superior to that of the other we must remember that the "better" group includes some weak individual institutions and the "poorer" group some strong ones.

Critics of the teachers colleges charge that they are too small and inadequately financed to do a good job. Such critics must be bemused by some dim mental picture of the old-fashioned normal school because the facts are far from bearing out their charges.

The Commission on Financing Higher Education, which published its reports in 1953, found the average enrollment of teachers colleges to be 1,009; that of all colleges of liberal arts, 1,127. The latter figure fell to 799 when the Commission set aside a small group of liberal arts colleges that have become so complex as to be hardly distinguishable from universities. These figures should dispose of the myth of the "little teachers college" as typical.

As to financial status no indices, probably, could be better than figures relating to faculty salaries. Other institutional expenditures tend to relate in a fairly exact way, and even when the proportion of the salary element to the total is relatively high, most people would say that that showed the money was being spent where it would do the most good.

A salary study for 1952-53, conducted by the National Education Association provides more complete information than has ever before been available. Nine categories of institutions of higher education are represented: state universities, non-public universities, municipal universities, land-grant colleges, teachers colleges, and non-public (that is, chiefly, liberal arts) colleges distributed in three groups according to size. The findings show that the highest beginning salaries for instructors and assistant professors are paid by the teachers colleges; that they all but tie for second place as regards beginning salaries for associate professors; that they occupy fourth place with respect to top salaries for instructors and assistant professors, and beginning salaries for full professors; and that they stand fifth as regards top salaries for associate professors and full professors. In no single one of these

respects are they inferior to either state colleges or any category of non-public colleges. To put it another way, these data indicate that on the average the teachers colleges today are paying better salaries across the board than are the colleges of liberal arts.

This not only disposes of the notion that the teachers colleges are poverty-stricken; it has some important implications for the quality of instruction that they are in a position to offer. College teachers are not notably less sensible of the advantage of a higher income than other persons in our competitive society. Probably some college teachers of high ability have in the past preferred to earn less money at some institution of established reputation rather than to earn more at one the reputation of which was still in the making. However, when a young scholar observes that the teachers colleges are paying better salaries, by an amount averaging nearly $500 a year, than even the largest non-public colleges, he may take a good look for himself and discover that these institutions are much more attractive than he had supposed.

But how about the quality of the student bodies? There is nothing the critics like to emphasize more than the allegation that teachers college students are intellectually inferior. Indeed one has recently characterized these young men and women as "the dregs of the college campus."

Examination of this charge requires us to consider what would constitute a test of undergraduate quality. Scores on intelligence and achievement tests might qualify. Or standing in one's high school class. Or, if the focus of our attention were on teacher education, we might wish to consider factors of character and of interest in boys and girls of all levels of intelligence.

When it comes to test scores the evidence points to the conclusion that teachers college students *average* somewhat lower than students who attend colleges of liberal arts. This is certainly not particularly surprising. The colleges of liberal arts make vigorous efforts to attract the most intellectually gifted students; they are able to offer them scholarships that cancel out a state-supported institution's low-tuition advantage; and their reputations have, by reason of their age as well as their excellence, become well-established. On the other hand the teachers colleges, as state-supported institutions, are likely to maintain relatively liberal admissions requirements. Legislators are inclined to think that all high school graduates should be given a chance at a college education.

However, the existence of such a differential in average abilities of the two student groups as is suggested by the test results is far from satisfying any such violent language as quoted above. This can be demonstrated by looking at the findings of a recent study that focused on the high-school standings of entering college freshmen. This particular study was made for the American Council on Education in 1947. Of one hundred students entering teachers colleges that fall about 36 percent were drawn from the top fifth of their high-school classes, about 45 percent from the next two-fifths, and only about 19 percent

(Continued on page 30)

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The Parasite Classroom Building

By William F. Clark

Few cities or towns have escaped the need for building new schools to house the rising tide of school enrollment. Nearly every community has found it necessary to build at least one school during the past few years. Many school systems have had to plan for several schools and have established schedules of school construction basing the need upon predictions of future enrollments. These predictions are usually predicated upon birth rate data, a census of pre-school children and the holding power, grade to grade of the particular school systems.

Bad Guesses Bring Big Problems

An examination of birth rates over the past years reveals that the year 1947 was to that time the highest in the history of the country. At that time the experts forecasted that at least for the predictable future the year 1947 would remain the all-time high and that thereafter the rate would decline by approximately 6 percent per year. Both predictions proved to be in error. Nation-wide the decline of the birth rate was actually less than the predicted 6 percent, and in 1952, contrary to all predictions, the birth rate considerably exceeded that of 1947.

This combination——an annual decline less than anticipated, and an unexpected bumper crop of babies ——has brought serious problems to many communities. Some have had to recast their building programs in order to plan for housing an enrollment greater than anything they had expected. Many had essentially completed their programs of elementary school building and had embarked on the secondary school phase. These found themselves faced with a need for additional classrooms, and for planning still larger secondary schools to accommodate the ultimate enrollment as it moved up through the grades. Some communities find the problem also complicated by local shifts of population which result in seriously over-crowded classrooms in some districts and an excess of capacity in others.

Finally, school superintendents and public officials generally are becoming concerned over the cost of school construction. This concern is not confined to those communities which have extended themselves financially to provide adequate modern schools, and which find themselves facing a need for greater expenditure. Many educators are disturbed lest the dollar for school construction begin to compete with the dollar for teachers' salaries and for books and supplies. They feel that if such is to be avoided it is necessary to develop some less expensive envelope in which to house the teaching process.

An Old Theme—With Variations

The story of the growth of enrollment which culminated in the construction of this four room addition reported here is one whose counterpart can be found in most suburban communities. The Franklin School (in Newton, Mass.), a building of thirteen classrooms, auditorium and two basement playrooms was occupied in 1939. At that time it was felt that a school of this size would prove to be ample for a district which was regarded as essentially stable both in character and in population.

In anticipation, however, of the expansion of enrollment following World War II, the Newton School Committee in 1948 adopted a long-range program of school construction. This schedule comprised ten new elementary school buildings and three building additions. Included among these was an addition of four classrooms and a playroom to the Franklin School.

This was occupied in 1950, the same year the shock wave of the post-war tide of enrollment hit the district. Only a year after this addition was opened, two more classrooms were needed. These were made available by the simple expedient of partitioning part of one of the two basement playrooms. Meanwhile, a residential building boom got underway in the district bringing scores of the children of families new to the city to a school already seriously over-crowded.

In 1952, a new "neighborhood school" was occupied in an adjacent district. This five-room building was located so as to give major relief to the Franklin School and lesser relief to two other schools in contiguous districts. In 1952 the school committee also acted to reduce the size of the Franklin School attendance district. In spite of these actions the mushrooming real estate development of the district indicated a need for four additional classrooms by 1954, and a possible fifth room a year or two later.

The problem, however, proved not to be quite as simple as that of providing four or five more classrooms. For some time the State has been studying several possible locations for the eastern terminus of the projected east-west highway. For the past year the location most favored is one which would have this new highway bisect the Franklin School district. This would create an isolated island of homes separated from the school district by a Maginot Line of speedways and cloverleaf intersections.

Should this happen and should the boom in home construction not soon subside, a new district with its own school building might well need to be created. This would mean, of course, an accompanying shrinkage of the enrollment of the Franklin School to its pre-1954 size. It would also mean that a permanent four or five room addition

could within as little as two or three years become unnecessary *in that location.*

A further complication, perhaps not quite as important, was the fact that the Franklin was a full-sized elementary school located on a site already small by modern standards. A four or five classroom addition of traditional design would but further reduce the useable play area of the school.

Criteria for Construction

This, then, was the problem faced by the Newton School Committee: The urgent but probably temporary need for a four or five classroom addition. After long and careful study the committee prescribed four criteria for the design of the proposed addition: high quality, transportability, compactness, and economy both of first cost and of re-location.

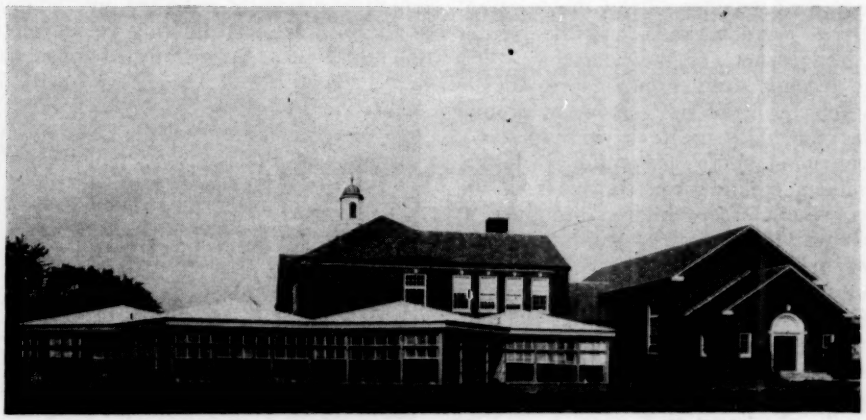
Of these criteria the committee regarded the first as the prime consideration. They held that there should be in the design no compromise either with present or future circumstances in providing a pleasant, functional educational environment, one that in terms of appearance, equipment, and space allotment must be up to the highest contemporary standards. They recommended that every effort be made to anticipate the trend of rising standards for health, for safety, and for educational usefulness.

They specified that the building be designed in such a way that it could readily be taken down and set up at a new location at reasonable cost. This would make it possible for a building or addition to be relocated to meet enrollment changes following the unpredictable shifts of suburban population. The committee expressed the thought that, ideally, a school system should be able to deploy classroom space almost as readily as the teaching force and the movable furniture and equipment.

Considering the limited size of the site, it was recommended that the design be one which would consume a minimum of available space, one which could be adapted to other buildings, and sites.

Finally, the committee specified that the building be designed for maximum economy compatible with the above three requirements. Harassed public officials and burdened taxpayers need no further reasons in support of this requirement. An added imperative to economy of course, is the fact that the project is frankly experimental, from the educational, the structural, and the financial standpoints.

Speed of construction was also considered to be of vital importance and was to be given consideration in the design. This is an obvious requisite if the objective of the speedily flexible school is to be realized. The school committee quite frankly envisions a future in which more or less unexpected shifts of enrollment within the city can be met in a matter of weeks by a rearrangement of movable classroom space.



Parasite classrooms — an answer to the overcrowded school problem?

Still an Experiment

The solution to this school problem is frankly an experiment. It is not designed to set a trend nor to be copied. It is simply the solution by one school system of a problem which many communities are now facing or will shortly be called upon to face. No claims are made as to the adequacy of the solution. It is now being put to the only valid test for a school building, that of school use.

Some of the decisions which went into the final design were over-determined by the cumulative effect of certain minor considerations. A very few were arbitrary, representing the predictions of those most intimately involved in the planning. None were dictated by a conscious desire merely to be different.

The basic element of the design is the pentagonal shaped classroom. Four of these are clustered around a central area called the "aula" from which they are accessible. The walls of the pentagon are 23 feet long, each room having two window walls

and three inner walls. The somewhat unusual shape was first considered for reasons of compactness since it clustered well and intruded least upon the available site. It was tested for its educational adequacy by creating a mock-up of it and of other shapes in the school gymnasium, where it was studied by a group of Newton teachers under the leadership of Dr. J. Bernard Everett, Director of Instruction.

It was the opinion of this group that the pentagonal shape possessed certain educational advantages over classrooms of other shapes. They felt, for instance, that the pentagon created a sense of circularity, of unity, of cohesion. As one teacher expressed it, "there are no back seats."

The pentagonal shape also provides an additional room corner, one more than the conventional square or rectangular classroom. The teachers felt that this corner could be put to work so as to contribute a fifth center of interest, an additional source of motivation to learning.

The teachers found that the shape gave an illusion of space greater than the actual 920 square feet, an illusion probably enhanced by the apparent openness of the two window walls, and the greater than ninety degree corners of the room.

Finally, the teacher study group expressed the opinion that the clustering of the classrooms around the central aula seemed to create a sense of community not present in more conventional design. From each classroom children can see parts of the adjoining rooms, where other children are busy at similar tasks. It was felt that this would contribute to the sense of belonging to a larger group, the school community, all working towards a common end. Engineering study revealed that certain structural advantages were inherent in the pentagonal design. It permits a skeleton frame of pyramid tent shape which is both economical, and extremely rigid, having successfully withstood the assaults of New England's two hurricanes of 1954, Carol and Edna.

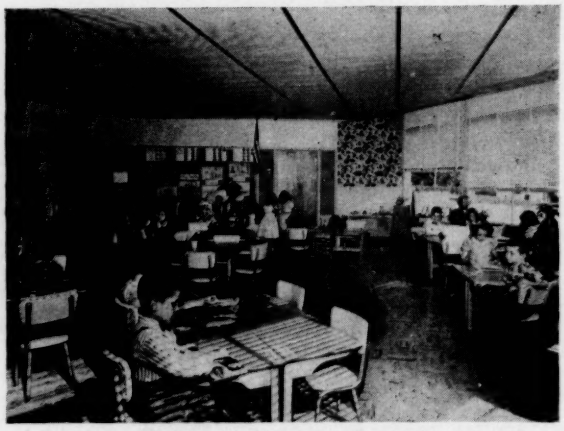
The aula, a term borrowed from ancient architecture, identifies the approximately 1200 square feet of central space from which all classrooms are accessible and around which they all cluster. It has the shape of half an octagon, and measures 70 feet in its longest dimension and 24 feet units shortest dimension. Its forty foot window wall faces a courtyard open to the sky which is enclosed between the main building and the addition.

This successor to the corridor is designed to function as a multipurpose room, providing in addition to the ordinary corridor function of communication, those of clothing storage, audio-visual room, and a teaching space for small groups. Should the enrollment again overflow, a fifth teacher could be located in the aula to work tutorially with small groups drawn from each of the four classrooms. By this means, 35 children could be housed in each of the regular classrooms without affecting the city-wide median class enrollment of 28 children.

The courtyard which separates the main building from the four room addition might appear at first glance to be a luxury. It was, however, a must if windows in the original building were not to be blocked from receiving natural light. It will be put to use as an outdoor science classroom, its minature pool providing living space for goldfish and turtles, and its planted areas treated with carefully selected plants and small shrubs. It is intended to be used as an outdoor laboratory for living things.

Artificial lighting in the classrooms is by means of the so-called luminous ceiling. This is a system in which the entire ceiling of the room serves in the manner of the plastic diffusing shield of a luminous indirect fixture. Parallel rows of fluorescent lamps in commercial fixture mounts are fastened to the structural ceiling. A continuous false ceiling of corrugated translucent white plastic is then installed in rows thirty inches wide on aluminum channels suspended inches below the structural ceiling.

This, too, might at first glance appear to be a luxury. It was, however, considered a must since the pentagonal shape of the classroom measures over 35 feet at the apex. Careful cost analysis of construction costs revealed that the luminous ceiling which is generally regarded by illuminating experts as the best artificial lighting yet developed, exceeded the total cost of a finished plasterboard ceiling,



Work and play are pleasant in the parasite.

acoustical treatment, and conventional luminous indirect fluorescent lighting by only $100 per room.

In 1949, Newton made an experimental installation of a luminous ceiling in a classroom in the Hyde School in Newton Highlands, the first such installation in a public school in the country. The superior quality of the lighting together with the low cost of operation and maintenance were strong factors in the decision to employ luminous ceilings.

Portability Features

The classroom windows are stock steel windows of the wide pane type with an out-winging vent window in each wall. The window stool is only 20 inches above the floor, the low height permitting even the smaller children to have a pleasant sense of vista. The windows extend upward to within three inches of the ceiling thereby providing space

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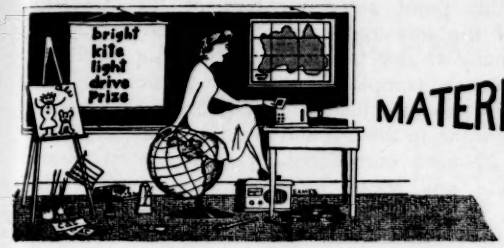

Elementary Science Emphasis

Available with the special membership for elementary schools is the ***Elementary School Science Bulletin*** of the National Science Teachers Association. It is published six times a year and is sent (10 copies) to each school which subscribes also to The Science Teacher (6 issues). There are also four or five Packets stuffed with free materials from industry, all screened by a committee of science teachers for educational worth. Whole set of services, $5 per elementary school. NSTA, 1201 16th Street NW, Washington 6, D. C.

Articles in the November issue: Peanuts and Plant Growth; Feeding Animals in the Classroom; An Introductory Study ot Rubber; Winter is Coming.

Correlations of Elementary and Junior High School Science Filmstrips shows how many ot the elementary science textbooks correlate with the filmstrip sets published by The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd. Detroit 11, Mich. Write for it on school letterhead.

There is a Science, Conservation, and Outdoor Experiences section in the ***Selected References*** of the Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C. Free.

Write to any of the publishers of elementary science series (readers or grade 1-8 books) asking about supplementary services, charts of concepts, correlations with motion pictures, and teachers' aids. Use school letterhead.

Two of the major film-producing companies are offering many elementary science pictures. Write for the catalogues of:

Coronet Films, 65 E. South Water St. Chicago 1, Ill.
Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois

Many of these films may be obtained on a rental basis from your state university, private university, or state department libraries. Inquire of your own state department of education.

Teaching Films Custodians,
25 West 43rd Street, New York 36, N. Y.

This group has prepared a unique set of excerpts from feature motion pictures which set the stage for the acquisition of new attitudes and concepts about the place of science in the world. Write for a listing.

Some of the old faithful ***Science Periodicals,*** well-known for their accuracy of fact and for their readability, are: (write for sample copy and rates)

Current Science and Aviation,
400 Front St., Columbus 15, Ohio

Our Dumb Animals,
The Mass. Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals,
180 Longwood Ave., Boston, Mass.

Cornell Rural School Leaflets
Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Turtox Service Leaflets,
General Biological Supply House
Chicago, Ill.

Audubon Magazine
Bird Lore
1000 Fifth Ave., New York 28, New York.

A Guide Sheet to Nature Study
Mass. Audubon Society
155 Newbury Street
Boston 16, Mass.

The National Geographic Magazine
(Especially the separate color sheets which are available to schools for cost of handling and mailing, being portions of the magazine.)
National Geographic Society, Washington, D. C.

Nature Magazine (educational inserts)
low cost tear-sheets, with beautiful photographs, often in color. American Nature Association 1214 16th Street, N. W. Washington 6, D. C.

"Free And Inexpensive Reference Materials," compiled by the New Jersey Art Education Association. Includes 26 mimeographed pages listing sources of supply of many types of materials for use in the art program in schools. There are 33 classifications of materials, including: architecture, art history, costume, crafts, lay-out and design, marionettes, papers, photography, sculpture, silk screen, techniques, water color, and others. Almost 200 different sources of supply are given for the busy art teacher who will find this a valuable aid in her work. 35c a copy.

"The Film as an Art Resource," compiled by the Films on Art Program Committee of the 1954 EAA convention. Lists 14 outstanding films on art with detailed reviews of each, also list of film distributors from whom catalogues are available, and a well made up evaluation form. The showing of these 14 films was one of the highlights of the convention. 10c a copy.

Orders sent to Eastern Art Association Secretary, State Teachers College, Kutztown, Pa., will be filled as long as the supply lasts. Please send remittance with order. Checks should be made to Eastern Art Association.

in which the venetian blinds are installed. These latter permit maximum flexibility in the control of natural light.

In order to meet the requirements of transportability, all elements of the construction were divided into three groups, those which were demountable, those which were salvageable, and those which were expendable. Included among the items listed as demountable were the following: the wood frame, built in unit panels with bolt or screw and with sheathing and insulation attached; the steel windows; the doors and frames, the cabinet work such as the cupboards, windowseats, chalkboards, tackboards, and pegboards.

Included among the salvageable items are the following: all heating, plumbing, ventilating and electrical appliances above the concrete floorslab, together with all piping, ductwork and wiring; acoustic tile; cedar siding; slate window stools; gutters and conductors; and all interior and exterior trim.

The expendable items are those which will be destroyed in the process of dismantling, and which must, therefore, be discarded. These items are: the concrete floor slab with all underground piping; the brick veneer exterior; the asphalt floor tiles; the rubber tile baseboards; the vinyl plastic dado finish; and the roof flashings and roof surface. While the concrete floorslab is classed as an expendable item since it cannot be removed and re-installed in a new location, it should not be regarded as entirely lost. It is intended that the slab will become part of the playground on which the addition now stands.

Heating and ventilating of the addition is of conventional design with a window type unit ventilator in each room, and an exhaust fan mounted on the roof. Additional direct radiation of the fin type is installed below the sill along each window wall to counteract the chilling effect of convection from the large expanse of glass. The existing oil-fired vapor-vacuum steam heating system in the original building was used as a heat source, the actual connecting of steam supply and return lines being done by the city, and the cost, therefore, not included in the contract price.

The sink, and the chalkboard and tackboard represent the only items of equipment which are permanently a part of the classroom, all other furniture and equipment being movable.

The furniture and equipment for the Franklin School addition was designed to meet the expressed needs of the teaching staff. Is was built for today's program, but with an eye toward the more noticeable trends in the field of elementary education. All the items, the wardrobes, the storage cabinets, the combination teachers coat locker and storage unit are movable. This makes it possible to alter, to improve, even to discard and to replace these pieces at some time in the future without any alteration of the room itself, in order to meet changing needs.

At this point some mention of the parasitic nature of the four room addition should be made. Unlike many if not most school building additions this project is completely parasitic. Since the administrative rooms, health unit, library, playroom, and auditorium in the original building were adequate for the ultimate enrollment, it was not necessary to provide any space for these activities in the addition. The existence of ample washroom facilities in the original building obviated the necessity of providing additional toilets.

If it should become necessary to convert the four room addition to a self-contained school in a new location, the addition of these needed facilities can readily be accomplished. Furthermore, if the occasion should arise for the construction of an eight room self-contained unit, this can be accomplished by joining together two clusters of four rooms each with the administrative and large group spaces accommodated by the central area.

The Cost Factor

The amount of the general contract was $55,218. Additional costs brought the figure to $56,973, including an average amount of site improvement. The cost of connecting a new steam supply and a return line and pump to the boiler room, the fire alarm, telephone and public address system amounted to $4,175. This cost is substantially higher than would normally be encountered in making such connections because of the fact that in the Franklin School the boiler room is located at the end of the building farthest from the addition. Grading and drainage occasioned by the nature of the site amounted to $1,351. Furniture and equipment for the addition cost $9,171. The total cost of the project, not including the architects fee, was $71,671.

Thirteen general contractors submitted bids on the project. Nine of these bids were within ten percent of the low bidder, the Carol Construction Co. of Boston and the contract was awarded on May 24, 1954. Despite ten days of torrential rain which delayed the start of work, and two hurricanes during construction, one less than 48 hours before the opening of school, the addition was ready for occupancy on the opening day of the school year, Sept. 1954.

The solution to the problem faced at the Franklin School is an experiment. All that can be said at the present is that it brings together in one project for the first time all of the following elements: pentagonal classrooms, economical transportability, parasitic relationship to an existing building, compactness, adaptability to shop fabrication, economy, speed of construction, and finally a design that allows 25 percent flexibility of overflow within itself.

In the final analysis, a school building is only as good as the children, the teachers, and the parents say that it is. For their verdict we must wait until the building has been lived in for a time. It does appear, however, that the Franklin School addition will not become educationally obsolete as rapidly as do most school buildings.

NEW BOOKS

Recent Publications In The Area Of Recreation And Student Activities

Recreation entered a new era at just about the turn of the 20th century. This was expressed in several ways, but the most important of these was the willingness of the public schools to accept as one of its functions the training of children in the wise use of leisure.

This willingness to educate for leisure was indicated to be an objective of a great many committees, among which were: *The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, Committee on Standards in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula, The Committee on Social Economic Goals,* and *The Educational Policies Commission.* The acceptance of education for leisure as an objective of education has been given impetus by several new publications in this area.

Secondary School Activities[1] by Gruber and Beatty is an attempt to review the great mass of experimental, practical and theoretical periodical material that has been written about extra-class programs.

There has never been established any specific and thorough relationship between classroom and extra-class activities. The authors, however, seem to feel that the activities program of the secondary school represents the spirit of the school and reflects the status and life of the community. With this point of view in mind every attempt is made to help the teacher and student bring into proper focus the many aspects of the "activity program."

Clearly prepared suggestions for the administration, sponsorship, financing and promotion of programs set the stage for a description discussion of what constitutes good activity programs. Nearly every possible activity area is discussed and suggestions made for their use in the "*Activity Program.*" Special attention has been given to the use of Speech, Dramatics, Music and Dance. The Health, Physical Education and Recreation program with all of its diverse skills and opportunities are given wide coverage in regard to ways of controlling so-called evils, undue emphasis and undesirable practices. Considerable attention is given to the "nature and make-up" of School Publications, The Social Program, Commencement Programs, as well as means of Evaluating Student Activities.

The method of approach used by the authors to the development of these activities is such that the elementary school teacher may very well profit by this reference in the development of extra-class activities in her school.

In a review of a recent novel portraying a contemporary American middle-class community, one critic was struck by the absence from the lives of the characters of activities that contribute to human satisfaction. Almost nobody, he remarked, grew anything, made anything, read a book, looked at a painting or listened to music. Hardly anyone was able to relieve his tension-loaded existence with zestful relaxing fun. This problem is commonplace in the lives of a great many Americans today.

Albert Ostrow in his recent publication entitled *How to Enjoy Yourself*[2] attempts to meet the problems created when men and women do not learn, as children, how to use their leisure wisely.

The author builds, for the reader, a simple basic philosophy in the use of leisure that lends itself to logical individual use and development of good recreational practices.

With this philosophy as a basis there is developed a multitude of suggestions for use during leisure. These activities run through such varied categories, so common in the classification of recreation, as: Looking, Listening, and Laughing, Muscle Play as Fun, Games, Card Sense and Gambling, How To Enjoy Your Family, Taking a Vacation, Adventure Through Travel, A Lift From Nature and others.

Each of these suggested areas has guides to help the individual secure the maximum benefits from the activities mentioned. These include methods of avoiding "pitfalls" that prevent one from securing the maximum benefits from recreation.

This book will serve as a guide to the use of leisure by adults and provide a basis for the education of children for the use of leisure when they reach the age of planning for themselves.

Helen Jacobs in her recent book *The Family Book of Games and Sports*[3] uses an approach to the use of leisure that encourages children to initiate their own recreational activities and to include their peers and parents in activities that are adaptable to varied age levels.

This book is rich in suggestions for the play leisure of very young children as well as for all others of the family including the parents. The activities include *how* to play active games both in and outside the house, social games and activities, the use of the backyard, playroom or den in the enrichment of the leisure of the entire family.

A great many of the activities may be used as the basis of child and adult parties and social functions. The emphasis has been placed on lower cost activities that can be made or engaged in by families of all income levels. There is an "almost endless" number of things to do.

(Continued on page 28)

Drill and Multiplication Tables

There is an old adage that goes, "It ain't what you do, it's the way that you do it." This can be extended to the field of education by adding, "and it's where, when and how you do it." The contention over the place of drill in teaching the multiplication tables seems to fall in with the statements above.

Miss Rena Gates (1) of the Battle Creek Public Schools carried out such an experiment during two teaching periods, using the rotational technique with three groups of fifth-grade children. In the first teaching period group, I drilled on the multiplication tables, while groups II and III learned them incidentally in practicing exercises in multiplication. In the second teaching period the methods were reversed, groups II and III drilling, group I learning incidentally. The children were tested before and after each teaching period by the use of two tests. One was a test on the multiplication tables, the other on multiplication exercises. The results of the tests were tabulated, and the gains of the various groups were compared by use of Fisher's "t", in order to find the significance of the differences in gains. The individual scores were also analyzed to determine how each pupil profited by the methods.

She found that gains were made by all groups whether or not they were taught by the drill or incidental procedure. The difference between the amounts of gain made by the various groups, however, were not statistically significant. On the group basis, therefore, the success of one method over another seems to be a function of the group rather than the method.

As far as individual pupils were concerned, more of the better pupils seemed to find the incidental procedures more valuable, while more of the pupils of lower ability seemed to find the drill procedure more successful.

In conclusion, Miss Gates believes that teachers should not confine themselves to any one method of teaching the multiplication tables. They should do some drilling and some practice in working mu'tiplication tables. They should do some drilling and some practice in working multiplication exercises, as the situation may demand.

Further, she suggests that the individual child should be studied, and given instruction that best fits his needs. Some will need to be drilled, some will learn their tables without drill, some will need much motivation, much individual guidance, before they will learn at all.

Teaching Soil Conservation

Mrs. Mary Gebhard (2) had the idea that the best way to teach soil conservation was to find out which conservation practices were used in Cass County, Michigan, where her school was located and to make use of them in her teaching. So she set out to discover by means of questionnaire and interview what conservation practices were being used by the farmers in the local area, which ones were eminently successful and which not, and to what extent crop yields were increased by the use of these practices. After obtaining this information, she then developed a resource unit on soil conservation for use in the fifth grades in the various county schools.

It was not surprising that she learned that many of the traditional soil conservation practices such as crop rotation, pasture seeding and grassed waterways were eminently successful in Cass County. However, it was surprising to note that many practices such as contour plowing, strip cropping and reforestation had not proved to be as productive as might be desired in terms of time and effort expended.

As a result of her findings she concluded that by relatively simple techniques it is possible to obtain information concerning soil conservation practices from farmers in a local community. Further she found that it was possible to incorporate such direct information within a soil conservation unit for use with fifth graders.

She stated also that in developing a unit for any study of soil conservation it would seem advisable to contact persons who have a direct and hence complete knowledge of the subject, and in this manner secure first-hand information.

She based this latter statement on the fact that in local areas many highly-recommended conservation practices are not successful.

Socio-economic Influences and Reading Ability

Sheldon (3) and his students at Syracuse University have been carrying out a research project on several aspects of reading at different levels, in cooperation with eight school systems in central New York.

In one study 868 students (10% of all pupils in the eight schools participating in the studies) were chosen, half chosen for high achievement in reading, half chosen for low achievement in reading. Students were selected on the basis of achievement tests scores in reading and teacher rating of pupil's status in reading. Differences in intelligence was controlled by choosing children who scored in the average range on an intelligence test.

The Progressive Reading Test was given to the children and a questionnaire was given to the parents.

The latter, having been developed at the Reading Laboratory at Syracuse University, consisted of nine pages of mimeographed questions. These covered the following areas: environmental history, developmental history, emotional development, educational history, and physical growth and health background. Before questionnaires were sent out, parents were told of the purpose of this study. Of the 868 children studied, 844 took the Progressive Reading Test. Of the 868 children studied, 537 parents returned questionnaires. Of the 844 children who took the reading test, 521 parents returned questionnaires. On the questionnaires were: 1. Size of the family. 2. Position of the child among his siblings. 3. Number of books in the home. 4. Age at which child spoke his first word. 5. Age at which the child spoke in sentences. 6. Number of children in the neighborhood of same age as child. 7. Educational level of the parents.. 8. Occupational status of the father. 9. Number of times family moved and age of child each time. 10. Fears of the child. 11. General frequency of daydreaming. 12. Parent's opinion as to whether child liked or disliked school.

From the data reported by the parents, the following socio-economic factors were most strongly related to reading ability:

1. Size of family – except for single-child families, the smaller the family, the greater the percent of good readers.
2. Position in family–the earlier the ordinal position in the family, the higher the per cent of good readers.
3. Number of books–the per cent of good readers increased as the size of the home library increased.
4. Educational level of parents–good readers come more often from homes where parents have reached a higher educational level.
5. Like and dislike of school–good readers tend to like school in contrast to poor readers who tend to dislike school.

A slight relationship existed between occupational status of father and reading ability, in favor of children coming from homes where the father worked in the professional and managerial fields. The fact that the relationship is less with father's occupation than with the number of books in the home is of interest. A slight relationship was also shown with family moves–a higher percentage of poor readers was observed in those instances where the familly had moved once when the child was six to eight years old. Other than this occasion no relationship was shown between number of moves made by family and reading achievement. Nor was any relationship observed between number of fears expressed by child and reading achievement.

Many of the relationships pointed out by Sheldon in this study are what one would anticipate. Although many are of such a nature that the teacher can do little to modify the home situation, such as decreasing the number of children in the family (even though homicidal impulses may have their attractive moments), nevertheless we are reminded that the quality and extent of stimulation received by children in their life out of school contributes materially to their readiness and motivation for reading.

Analysis of Reading Difficulties

Another study (4) completed by Sheldon and his students in the Reading Laboratory of Syracuse University was an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses in reading of a group of fourth grade students. Although the study suffers because of the small number of pupils employed, the listing of the common errors may be of interest to fourth grade teachers. In this study, two groups of fourth grade pupils, one superior readers, the other inferior readers, were given the Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty by trained reading clinicians. The groups included children from both rural and urban environments. Rank-ordered from highest to lowest frequency, the major errors of *superior* readers were:

1. Guessing at words from general form
2. Substitution of words of similar form.
3. Scanty recall of difficult material.
4. Habitual repetition of words
5. Scanty unaided recall
6. Inadequate phrasing.
7. Lip movements.

In comparison the major errors of inferior readers in rank-order were:

1. Substitution of word of similar form.
2. Blends missing
3. Word by word reading
4. Low sight vocabulary
5. Letter sounds missing
6. Guesses at word from general form
7. Inadequate phrasing
8. Scanty recall of difficult material
9. Word analysis ability poor
10. Inability to combine sounds into words
11. Ignoring punctuation.

From the listing given, it appears that scanty unaided recall after oral reading, guessing at words from their general form and the substitution of similar word forms for whole words are weaknesses in reading of many children, regardless of their status as superior or inferior readers–at least on the fourth grade level.

Inferior readers exhibit more word-by-word reading and have difficulty in phonetic attack both of sounds of letters and blends. The sight vocabulary of inferior readers is less adequate. While it is recognized that vocabulary is correlated with intelligence, and it is true of the superior group in this study that they had higher average intelligence, the study suggests that some of the deficiences of the poorer readers are amenable to attack on a skills level.

The third study (5) to be reported parallels the preceding study except that it was performed with ninth grade students instead of fourth grade students.

380 ninth grade students of average or above intelligence and representing the top and bottom five per cent of their class in reading achievement were selected on the basis of their performance on reading achievement tests and teacher rating of student's reading ability.

An extensive battery of tests were administered —Progressive Reading Test, Van Wagenene-Dvorak Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities, California Test of Mental Maturity, Rorschach Test, California Test of Personality, and Keystone Visual Survey Tests. The present report was a preliminary report based on the achievement test data.

Although the two groups were members of the same classes, and ostensibly expected to do similar tasks, there was little similarity in their intellectual or reading abilities. The superior group's reading achievement was three grades above grade level, the inferior group's was three grades below level. One group was reading on a twelfth grade level, the other on a sixth grade level. For all practical purposes, instructional material should be provided at two widely separated grade levels. (Mallinson, Weston.)

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New Books

(Continued from page 25)

These three books indicate that leisure is one of the most precious and personal possessions. Unless teachers and parents educate children in its wise use, then leisure works against the individual and society. For the good of all, help everyone to use it wisely and enjoy it.

James A. Wylie

[1] *Secondary School Activities.* Frederick C. Gruber and Thomas B. Beatty. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

[2] *How to Enjoy Yourself.* Albert A. Ostrow. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. 1954.

[3] The Family Book of Games and Sports. Helen Jacobs. Chicago: Popular Science Publishing Company, 1954.

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Karl W. Bigelow, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, is a graduate of Clark University and received the Ph. D. degree in economics from Harvard. His distinguished career includes service with the Commission on Teacher Education and the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO. His article, "The American Teachers College," was the Henry Barnard Lecture of 1954. Through the kindness of Dr. Bigelow and President Herbert D. Welte of the Teachers College of Connecticut the *Journal of Education* was permitted to reprint this timely and scholarly paper.

William F. Clark, Secretary of the School Committee, Public Schools of Newton, Massachusetts, is a graduate of Tufts College and has the Ed. M. from Boston University. Active in the field of school business management since 1939, he has served as a consultant in school plant planning. Among other organizations, Mr. Clark holds membership in the Association of School Business Officials.

James A. Griffin, Headmaster of John K. Tarbox School, Lawrence, Massachusetts, is the guiding genius behind the Tarbox School Savings Bank, a project conducted entirely by elementary school students, and approved by the State Bank Commissioner. The *Journal* also acknowledges the assistance of Mary H. Lucy, Marion Dolan, Beatrice Weineman, Mildred O'Leary, and Marion Stacy, all of the Lawrence Public Schools.

Willie Mae Ivey, Art Consultant of the Great Neck (N. Y.) Public Schools, was formerly Art Supervisor for Arlington, Virginia. Busy Miss Ivey preaches "the gospel of beauty," whether through her writing, exhibits, television work, or as a trustee of the Museum of Fine Art in Richmond, Virginia.

Mary Louise Mendiones, with a doctor's degree from the University of Illinois, teaches literature at Purdue University Extension Division, Indianapolis. No "armchair traveler," Mrs. Mendiones has actually lived every experience she writes about. Articles from her peregrine pen have appeared in several leading magazines. Her advice to teachers: "If your 'sleeve of care' is raveled—travel!"

Herbert J. Phillips, public school music instructor at Middleville, Michigan, is a District President of the Michigan Education Association, and active in summer music camps. Equally interested in choral and instrumental groups, Mr. Phillips has sponsored a number of "blue-ribbon" organizations in his native state.

Alvin D. Rogers, whose "moving fingers" wrote the prefatory note, is Professor of Business Administration at Portland University. Until recently he was also Associate Minister of Foreside Community Church, Falmouth, Maine. He is well-known in the area for the educational and religious youth work he conducts.

Robert F. Savitt is Superintendent of Schools in Ipswich, Massachusetts, where he has initiated several citizen committees interested in education. He recently completed research in conjunction with the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools, on problems confronted and methods used by citizen committees. Active in civic activities, Dr. Savitt devotes much time to community service while developing good public relations for his school system.

Donald F. Theodore is responsible for much of the art work in this issue, identified by the modest *DFT* on the drawings. Provided, of course, the *Journal* does not place too heavy a burden on his capable shoulders, Don should receive the Ed. M. degree this summer from Boston University School of Education.

Robert Ulich was Counselor in Charge of Saxon Universities before his appointment as Professor of Education at Harvard University in 1934. A scholar of international reputation, Dr. Ulich is the author of such works as *History of Educational Thought, Conditions of Civilized Living, 3,000 Years of Educational Wisdom, Man and Reality, Crisis and Hope in American Education.*

Dora Housley White, proud of her origin deep in the Ozarks, is a product of Southwest Missouri State College and Washington University. She has been a classroom teacher, a school nurse, and is completing her tenth year as study hall supervisor in the high school of St. Charles, Missouri. Mrs. White's son is Dr. James R. White of Cornell University.

. . . *Citizen Participation*
(Continued from page 17)

members or by starting a new project before an old project is finished.

Good relations with other groups interested in education have been achieved by many committees by inviting representatives of these other groups to join the citizens committee. Proposals of the citizens committee should be presented in person to the school committee and, if rejected, the committee should restudy the problem, and, if the same recommendations are reached, attempt to educate all the voters to the value of the proposals.

Selecting areas to study is usually done by selecting the most pressing area, or, if there is no problem calling for immediate solution, numerous successful committees have undertaken a methodical analysis to select something worthwhile to consider. Many committees have carried on studies through small workable subcommittees, utilizing the services of the school staff for resource information and arriving at recommendations only after a thorough study of the problem under consideration.

Significance

School administrators and school board members must take cognizance of the increased interest in schools on the part of the public and the desire in many quarters to assist in solving problems. No longer can school officials exist in an "ivory tower" without caring or wanting to know the wishes of the people they serve. The citizen committee movement appears to be here to stay, in view of its widespread activity and considerable accomplishments.

Public schools must be an agency of the entire society, not a property of any group or privileged class. Schools should benefit the entire community making it a better place in which to live and a better place in which to make a living. This can be accomplished by willing citizen participation correctly, intelligently employed.

School people must, more than ever before, accept laymen as partners in the job of providing the best education for our youth. School authorities must learn the technique of working with citizen committees interested in improving education. Laymen must be willing to devote time and energy to the study of school problems. If citizens and professionals cooperatively consider educational matters, there are great possibilities, in the years ahead, to open new horizons of learning for the youth of our land.

CORRECTION . . .

In the May 1954 issue of the *Journal*, there was an error in the article *Phonics and Spelling* by Ernest Horn. ". . . differences (in spelling) are due . . . to the much *smaller* number of polysyllabic words . . ." rather than *larger* number. Page 233.

. . . *American Teachers College*
(Continued from page 19)

from the still lower levels. Even when one notes that the colleges of liberal arts exercised a 9 or 10 percent stronger pull on the ablest high-school group, one can safely declare that the teachers colleges as a whole attracted an able body of freshmen.

Continual Improvement Evident

There remains one charge to be considered, the recurrent one that the teachers colleges neglect the general education of their students because of their preoccupation with "methods courses." This notion is also a hangover from the old normal-school days. It is really fascinating to see how it persists in the face of evidence to the contrary. The Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education recommended that from an eighth to a sixth of a four- or five-year program of preparation for elementary- or secondary-school teaching be devoted to professional studies, and this modest proposal stirred no objection in teachers college circles, largely because it was in accord with emergent practice.

The Commission also recommended that at least three-eighths of a teacher-preparatory program be given over to general education of the sort that all college undergraduates, regardless of vocational goals, should have. This proportion, interestingly enough, turned out to be identical with that recommended for Harvard students by the famous Harvard Committee on General Education. A year or two later a study of actual practices in teachers colleges, in the cases of students preparing for teaching in the elementary schools, revealed that these institutions were actually averaging a somewhat greater emphasis on general education than either the Commission or Harvard had suggested.

The teachers college is not perfect and no one knows it better than those who are devoted to its service. We are dedicated to the continued improvement of this significant and essential American institution.

The beginnings of the teachers college were humble, but it has developed, within fifty years, in a really breathtaking way. There is no reason to suppose that its progress will not continue, that the gains it has made will not be consolidated, that its remaining weaknesses will not be repaired. We need not spend much energy in rebutting charges that are ill-informed. We should rather devote ourselves to keeping up the good work—and making it better! Despite the current upsurge of criticisms there is good reason to believe that an era of better feeling between teachers colleges and colleges of liberal arts impends. At least they are becoming more alike in many ways, which fact should give them more in common. We may hope to see more cooperation in attacks upon shared problems, and to hear less name-calling over the back fence!

A CLASSROOM BANK

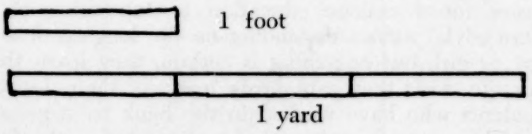
Pupils often forget to bring their money for transportation, lunch, or other purpose. To overcome this, and to set up a worthwhile classroom activity a classroom bank was organized. Bankbooks were made with pages appropriately headed date, withdrawal, deposit, and balance, and oak tag covers were stapled and bound. Boys and girls served as tellers. They handled the money, filled out the bankbooks which were kept by the pupils, and an account book listing each child's account which was kept by the teacher. Banking hours began the day and all money was safely locked up each afternoon. Most of the children participated and the value of the bank was proved many times over.

John Panagos, Grade Six
Sisson Elementary School
Lynn, Mass.

OLD NEWSPAPERS

One teacher keeps a supply of old newspapers in the room at all times. They use them under water color paper on the floor or at the easel. They make good backing and it makes the muss easy to clean up. They also use them under clay or as a surface on which to cut out. Then the scraps can all be picked up and folded inside to put in the waste basket. They are also good under paste.

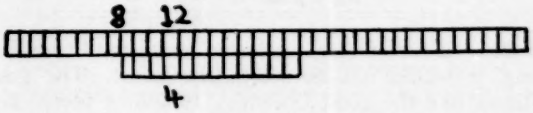
She said, "It is so much easier to keep from making a muss than it is to clean it up after it is made."



Paste signs "1 foot" and "1 yard" on a foot ruler and a yard stick. Keep them in a prominent place in the room. One teacher even used them on the bulletin board.

Show the children how to measure the yardstick with a foot ruler to discover that there are really three feet in a yard.

ANOTHER USE FOR A RULER AND A YARDSTICK

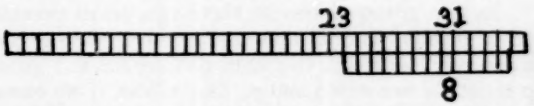


Show the children how to use the two for adding. It is especially good for sums above 10 or for adding by endings.

Take the example pictured above. Suppose we want to add 8 and 4. Find the 8 on the yardstick, Find the 4 on the foot ruler. Lay the foot ruler just below the yard stick so the end is even with the 8. Put a finger on the foot ruler at the 4. Read the answer (12) from the yardstick immediately above the 4.

Now let's try a harder one involving adding by endings:

23 and 8



Put the end of the foot ruler at the 23 on the yardstick. Put a finger on the 8 on foot ruler. Read the answer, 31, from the yardstick immediately above the 8 on the ruler.

KNOW YOUR PUPILS

One teacher of many years experience remarked, "How I wish I had kept a list of the names of all the children who have ever been in my classes!"

If you are a beginning teacher, NOW is a good time to start such a permanent list.

You'll be glad some day you did.

TWO BIRDS WITH ONE STONE

How to keep the bright pupils profitably employed and how to get reference materials ready for the class in a research approach to content material are two problems.

One teacher combined the two. She planned the new unit far enough ahead of time to put two or three pupils to work searching the contents or index in available references for related materials. They inserted markers and the references were ready for the new unit when the time came.

From "Ideas Worth Sharing"
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Study Hall . . .

(Continued from page 12)

of life. If self-discipline lasted only until the bell rang, it would not be worth the effort. The good citizen, like the good Christian, functions seven days a week. Students home from college or in homes of their own, often tell us that they learned to fully appreciate our school and our methods of discipline after they got away. One of our boys wrote from Japan, "Oh, what would I give for my old seat in study hall—the one by the window where I watched the robin build her nest in the maple tree each spring." That might have been nostalgia but a big six footer home from college for the Homecoming told us, "If I never learned another thing in this school, I learned to keep my mouth shut. I remember your comment that it is much easier to *talk* yourself into trouble than to *listen* yourself into trouble."

Certainly We Have Problems

In any group of people there is a small percentage of misfits. For various and sundry reasons they have never learned to live with people; haven't grown up mentally nor emotionally. Our school is no exception. We have our bad days and our problem children. Since we are near a big city, we get a criminal type once in a while. We have had boys and girls on parole and we have had to send one lad to a reformatory and one to Boy's Town, some girls to the Industrial Home. The average student, however, has ideals and the bad boy or girl is not idolized any more; it just isn't poular to be a reprobate. Most students prefer to be liked by the others. In talking to teachers from other states and from other parts of my own state, I am convinced that our student body at St. Charles is above the average in their every day behavior. Even the best disciplined student still needs supervision—someone with a grip on the reins, ready to give a gentle tug or a firm grip at any time the occasion arises. The teachers and students at St. Charles do their share of griping, but on the whole they are happy and cooperative. Otherwise, it would be impossible to handle such large crowds with a minimum amount of friction.

Keeping study hall is no menial task. It is a challenge. No other teacher has the same chance to mold character and turn young minds in the right direction. I learn to know all the students and all the teachers. There isn't a chance to get bored. It is hard work but there is never a dull moment.

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Unity or Confusion?

(Continued from page 4)

society, though it may seem so), an educational department that does not wish to set itself off from the intellectual struggles of its period will have to discuss these issues. That involves a certain mental strain on both instructors and students. Only dogmatic institutions can avoid it; they will, however, pay for their "peace of mind" by having the answers before the questions are asked, and in that way they may gradually exclude the questioning itself. In contrast, we hope that our institutions of higher learning have the obligation to discuss freely the problems which interest, or even disturb, our society, provided this discussion is carried on in a spirit of respect for the various ways and methods of human search. If the student takes away with him that spirit of respect, he has already become a believer, namely a believer in the necessity and dignity of human reasoning. Whatever, then, his individual answers to the problems of life and man may be, when he thinks deeply he can no longer be an adherent to a destructive and radical relativism. Rather he takes with him as a criterion for thought and action the belief in man as a rational being who by virtue of his nature must be given the right and freedom of further rational development. And this criterion is not merely theoretical, it is also moral. Among others, it has served as the spiritual foundation for the American Constitution.

Any Tuesday at 9:29

(Continued from page 9)

All withdrawals must be made at the Savings Bank only. Interest is credited twice a year on all accounts over $3.00. Once a month a representative of the Savings Bank will visit the school and take a trial balance of the individual school savings accounts to verify them with the total amount as shown by the ledger card at the savings bank.

Both school officials and parents have endorsed the program as one that has been of great aid to the pupils. It has aroused in the students a greater sense of values. Their wants may vary from the desire for a college education to something of a more trivial nature depending on the longing of any boy or girl, but one thing is certain, they learn that through thrift they can satisfy many of their desires. Students who have worked in the bank have gained confidence as a result of being entrusted with extra responsibilities and fulfilling them with satisfaction.

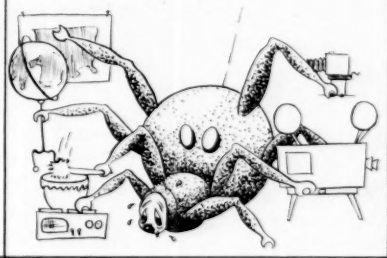
By the use of such a simple, practical method of thrift training, as the student operated school savings bank, the young citizens of our schools can be guided toward the more stable way of life that stems from personal independence and security.

OLD FACES in a NEW YEAR

JAN. school treasurer cuts budget

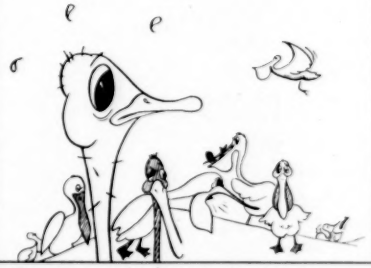
FEB. novice on the faculty

MARCH "Visual Aids are easily operated."



APRIL these books are on RESERVE.

MAY faculty chaperone on Senior trip



JUNE "Go Forth To Serve ..."

JULY summer school or bust

AUG. study hall supervisor on tour

SEPT. freshman orientation

OCT. coach briefs frosh squad

NOV. orchestra debut

DEC. "Who burned the Christmas cookies?"